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ABSTRACT

Encouraging teachers to utilize procedures and techniques that help their students become active, willing lifelong readers, this handbook has been compiled to serve as a guide for integrating the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment's (PSSA) definition of reading as a dynamic, interactive process into classroom practice. The handbook complements and extends decoding instruction through focusing on comprehension processes and the teaching activities which foster understanding. The information included is meant to be useful to all teachers of reading at all grade levels regardless of the ability of the students being instructed. Both general procedures and specific techniques are described, and illustrative examples are provided. The handbook is divided into four sections. Each section directly addresses helping students develop their abilities to interact with text. In the first section, the "Essential Elements of Reading" are described. Next, "General Guidelines for Reading Instruction" provides teachers with organizational suggestions. Third, "Features of Text," focuses on the important aspects of printed materials which influence how readers comprehend and what teachers need to emphasize during instruction. Finally, the "Effective Reading strategies" section presents information on developing the strategic behaviors used by proficient readers as they construct meaning. (Contains 3 tables, 23 figures of data, and a 79-item bibliography.) (RS)

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The Pennsylvania System of School Assessment

The Pennsylvania Assessment System

Reading Instructional Handbook

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The Pennsylvania System of State Assessment

Reading Instructional Handbook

Revised 1997

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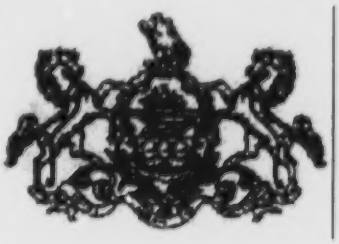

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Sincerely,
Mary Keepers, Reading Assessment

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PURPOSE OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL HANDBOOK

This **Instructional Handbook** has been compiled to serve as a guide for integrating the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment's (PSSA) definition of reading as a dynamic, interactive process into classroom practice. Such a definition requires an instructional shift from a concentration on isolated skills to the reading of meaningful text for the purpose of understanding its message. In this sense, the goal of this document is to encourage teachers to utilize procedures and techniques that help their students become active, willing lifelong readers.

The Pennsylvania reading assessment that evaluates students' comprehension abilities, is administered in grades 5, 8 and 11 and assumes that phonics instruction or some method of word analysis has been integrated into students' learning. Recent research on phonics instruction, as synthesized in Becoming a Nation of Readers (Anderson et al, 1985) and Beginning to Read by Adams (1990), indicates that such teaching should be direct, meaningful and occur in the primary grades. This Handbook complements and extends decoding instruction through focusing on comprehension processes and the teaching activities which foster understanding.

The information included is meant to be useful to all teachers of reading at all grade levels regardless of the ability of the students being instructed. Both general procedures and specific techniques are described, and illustrative examples are provided. This document is intended to complement the **Pennsylvania Framework for Reading, Writing, and Talking Across the Curriculum (PCRP 11)**. Both the Pennsylvania reading assessment and **PCRP 11** have been created from the same knowledge base, and a school district that is implementing **PCRP 11** will be able to easily incorporate the ideas in this **Handbook** into its instructional program.

This Handbook is divided into four sections. Each section directly addresses helping students develop their abilities to interact with text. The order of the Handbook sections is somewhat arbitrary, and although recommended, it is not imperative that they be read sequentially. It is hoped that as instructional needs arise, teachers will refer to a particular section for useful explanations and suggestions. In the first section, the "Essential Elements of Reading" are described. Next, "General Guidelines for Reading Instruction" provides teachers with organizational suggestions. Third, "Features of Text," focuses on the important aspects of printed materials which influence how readers comprehend and what teachers need to emphasize during instruction. Finally, the "Effective Reading strategies" section presents information on developing the strategic behaviors used by proficient readers as they construct meaning

ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF READING

A DEFINITION OF READING

In 1988, as part of a continuing review of the conceptual bases for statewide reading testing, the 60-member Reading Assessment Advisory Committee (RMC) designed a reading test that measured a broad range of comprehension abilities as well as other important elements of the reading process. In doing this, they examined reading research results from the previous 15 years, investigated the revised reading assessments being used by several other states, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), and studied the implications of the Department of Education's **Pennsylvania Framework for Reading, Writing and Talking Across the Curriculum (PCRP 11)**. Based on these investigations, the RMC recommended a definition of reading for Pennsylvania:

> Reading is a dynamic process in which the
> reader interacts with the text to construct
> meaning. Inherent in constructing meaning is
> the reader's ability to activate prior knowledge,
> use reading strategies and adapt to the reading situation.

This definition of reading means that a good reader is no longer defined as one who demonstrates mastery of a series of isolated skills, but rather as a person who can apply reading strategies independently and flexibly. Valid reading assessments therefore evaluate students' ability to apply their knowledge, skills and strategies to reading situations that are representative of those they encounter in their daily lives.

The Pennsylvania reading assessment is based on current thinking about teaching reading as a holistic, reflective, literacy process. Its purpose is to assess students' progress in transacting with text as they construct meaning from a variety of texts, activate their prior knowledge in order to relate the new to the known, respond to information and ideas gained by reading texts from varied sources, and analyze and make critical judgments about what is read. In other words, it assesses students' progress in making, not simply taking, meaning from what they read.

READING PURPOSES

Readers think and use text differently depending on the types of text and their purpose for reading. Three purposes for reading can be described as:

Reading for Literary Experience

- Involves reading novels, short stories, poems, plays, essays, etc...
- Requires exploring the human condition and the interplay among events, emotions, and possibilities.
- Requires knowing what and how an author might write in a specific genre and expectations of how the text will be organized.
- Involves looking for how the author explores or uncovers experiences...
- Requires engaging in vicarious experiences through the text.

Reading for Information

- Involves reading articles in magazines and newspapers, chapters in textbooks, entries in encyclopedias and catalogs, and entire books on particular topics.
- Requires awareness and interpretation of the features found in this type of topographic and visual aids such as charts, footnotes, diagrams, subheadings, and tables...
- Requires obtaining general information as when glancing through a magazine article or obtaining information for specific purposes such as is needed in preparing a research project.

Reading to Perform a Task

- Involves reading documents such as bus or train schedules; directions for games, classroom and laboratory procedures; tax or insurance forms; recipes; voter registration materials; maps; referenda; consumer warranties; and office memos.
- Requires understanding of the purposes and structure of documents that guide the selection, understanding, and application of information.

Requires applying, not simply understanding, the information.

READING STANCES

Reading stances refer to differing responses which readers make to what they have read. The stances are not a hierarchy of skills, nor are they ever really independent of each other. What distinguishes them are the complexity and thoroughness of a reader's response and the difficulty of the reading materials. All readers, regardless of age or level of ability, use them. The four reading stances and their definitions follow:

- **Initial Understanding** is a first impression or broad understanding of what is read. It may involve an overall understanding of the topic, theme or main idea of a passage.

- **Developing Interpretation** is extending ideas found in the text. This may involve linking information across parts of the text as well as focusing on specific information. It includes a range of inferential responses, from drawing conclusions and interpreting characters' actions to inferring cause and effect.

- **Responding Personally** is connecting information from the text with personal background knowledge and experience. The reader may, for example, reflect on either an incident in the passage or the author's point of view, and then respond from a personal perspective, or explain why the passage was interesting or not.

- **Responding Critically** is forming a critical judgment about the text. It requires standing apart from the text, reflecting upon and judging it. This stance may require the reader to appreciate literary elements such as imagery, mood or symbolism, and even to challenge an author's facts or perspective.

GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR READING INSTRUCTION

Effective reading instruction requires teachers to understand that many factors impact upon student learning. They must make professional decisions in order to facilitate their students' literacy development. The following guidelines provide direction for teachers in planning and implementing meaning-based literacy instruction.

Environment Conducive to Literacy Development

If reading abilities are to be developed and maintained, the school must be a place in which that is encouraged. The school must demonstrate that it values reading and in various ways do all that it can to promote literacy. Teachers can foster a love of reading through the attitudes and actions they model. Since educators cannot hope to accomplish their goals without support, parents and other community members need to be enlisted by the school to promote good reading habits. In fostering literacy, the school should:

- Maintain a school library and provide daily opportunities for all students to use it.
- Have well-stocked classroom libraries.
- Provide a variety of materials so students can read widely and develop a range of responses to reading.
- Have bulletin boards promoting reading and writing which showcase student writing and books by particular authors.
- Invite members of the community to the school to talk to classes about their reading interests and to read to students.
- Have an organized, ongoing program that involves parents in their children's reading development. See Fredericks and Taylor (1985) for more information on conducting a successful parent involvement program.
- Promote projects that allow students to celebrate their literacy experiences, e.g., Young Authors' Conferences, Readers' Theatre, cumulative records of books read on "Reading Trees," and "Reading Walls."

Organizational Suggestions

Teachers are probably the most influential factor in students' literacy development. In both obvious and subtle ways, they convey messages about the importance of reading; they model the behaviors that students will adopt. For these reasons, teachers should:

- Demonstrate enthusiasm for reading and writing.
- Talk about their personal reading and writing interest.
- Be knowledgeable about books appropriate for the age and interests of their students.
- Regularly recommend books the students might enjoy.
- Read aloud to students daily.
- Plan reading and writing activities in which everyone can succeed.

Instructional Materials

Reading instruction should prepare students to become active, willing lifelong readers. Therefore, the focal point of this instruction should be the reading of complete, meaningful selections from a variety of literary genres that deal with a wide range of interesting topics. Short stories, novels, poetry, essays, magazine and newspaper articles, biographies and other works of fiction and non-fiction all should be used in addition to the available basal readers and content area textbooks. In other words, the essential and primary activity in every reading class should be students interacting with text of some type. This does not mean that reading class should consist only of free, independent reading. Teacher guided activities should be planned around the reading of complete selections at appropriate readability levels, levels that offer challenge but also allow students to achieve success. Ultimately these activities should benefit the students' independent reading abilities.

Planning for Instruction

It is recommended that in planning for reading instruction, three basic types of activities be included: (1) direct teacher/student involvement, (2) independent follow-up activities and (3) self-selected reading/writing activities. A description of each type of activity follows:

1. Direct Teacher/Student Involvement

In this segment the teacher conducts normal reading instructional activities. Usually, this would take the form of a directed reading lesson centering on the reading of a complete selection. As an integral part of this lesson, the teacher could provide both formal and informal skill or strategy instruction. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers employ a "before reading," "during reading" and "after reading" structure when planning lessons which would include procedures and techniques such as those described in this Handbook.

> Before Reading activities prepare students to read. They help students anticipate meaning.
>
> During Reading activities guide students through the reading process. They help students construct meaning.
>
> After Reading activities refocus students' attention. They help students reflect, reconstruct and extend meaning.

2. Independent Activities

During this segment, activities that logically and legitimately follow the instruction conducted in the first segment are undertaken. This segment could include practicing a skill or strategy previously taught, writing a summary or personal reaction to the selection read in the lesson, or working on a project related to a thematic unit being studied in class. Follow-up activities should be purposefully planned by the teacher, and be meaningful to the students. Under teacher supervision, these activities can be devised by students, either individually or collaboratively.

3. Self Selected Reading/Writing Activities

Students need experience in reading and writing for their own purposes, and teachers must provide frequent opportunities for them to do so. Magazines, newspapers, paperbacks and writing materials should be readily available in the room, and students should be encouraged to browse freely as well as to read intently during this time. Many schools have Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) programs which are very beneficial. Also, students should have the opportunity to work on a project in their writing folders or to write in their personal diaries, learning logs, or dialogue journals.

Direct Instruction

Recent research has found that teachers who produce more learning in students consistently use direct teaching behaviors. In providing direct instruction, more effective teachers:

- Tell students what will be learned. The reason for each lesson is clearly identified and how that goal relates to previous lessons is explained.
- Provide information about the nature of the skill or strategy to be learned. This is explained in terms of what a person does when using the skill or strategy.
- Demonstrate or model the desired skill or strategy. A teacher's thoughts while using the skill or strategy are verbalized and explained.
- Actively monitor and give feedback to students during seat work.
- Provide ways for students to assess their own performance so they learn to self-monitor.
- Provide meaningful practice using a skill or strategy until a student can use it independently.

Making Connections

Readers construct meaning by interacting with text. When authors write, readers must often infer information necessary to fully comprehend. Writers always assume that readers will have a certain amount of background knowledge that they will use t~ infer the intended meaning. Comprehension occurs when readers connect the new information in the text with what they know already. Making those connections is the process of constructing meaning. Helping students make those connections is the essence of teaching reading.

Reading/Writing Connection

Reading and writing are complementary processes. They do not develop in isolation from each other, but are equally essential aspects of literacy. Like reading, writing is one of the most powerful tools a student can use. It is recommended that teachers have students write daily: (1) to enhance their understanding and learning of what they have read (writing to learn), and (2) to respond personally and critically to reading selections (writing in response to reading).

1. Writing to Learn

Brief, informal writing activities used before, during and after reading focus a student's attention. They can be used for many purposes, for example: to activate prior knowledge, to set a purpose for reading, to note a main idea, or to record the answer to a question. Writing to Learn activities should occur in all classes at all grade levels and in all subjects. Many Writing to Learn activities are described in the "Effective Reading Strategies" section of this Handbook. The writing that students produce during these activities is often not collected and is rarely evaluated. This type of writing provides teachers with an informal assessment of their own effectiveness and their students' progress. It is also a useful tool for students to self-assess their development.

2. Writing in Response to Reading

After students have read a selection, writing allows them to reflect on what they have read, integrate their prior knowledge with text-based information, extend meaning and express their ideas. The PSSA identifies these activities as performance tasks. It is the teacher's responsibility to assure that students are presented with rich passages from a variety of sources. Students respond best to pieces that engage them and are centered in-their interest and ability. Performance tasks encourage students to demonstrate in writing a thorough understanding of the text. These include personal, critical and/or evaluative responses that make strong connections to other experiences and concepts. Examples of written performance tasks in response to reading are:

- Summarizing the passage.
- Analyzing a character's actions.
- Analyzing two points of view from a passage.
- Explaining why a title is or is not appropriate.
- Rewriting the story from a character's point of view.
- Challenging the author's point of view.
- Evaluating the author's intentions.

Performance tasks are best evaluated with a scoring rubric. A scoring rubric is a fixed scale with a list of characteristics describing a level of performance for each point on that scale. The Pennsylvania Reading Rubric/Scoring Guide is one example of such a generic scoring tool which is useful across the grade levels and across the curriculum.

Refer to the PSSA Reading Assessment Handbook for examples of how this rubric/scoring guide is used.

Instruction/Assessment Connection

Instruction and assessment should not be separate entities in the educational experience. They are inextricably connected components. When reading instruction occurs in an environment conducive to literacy development, when it engages students in the meaningful reading of a wide variety of genres, and when it incorporates writing in response to reading, assessment of student performance should be equally rich and ongoing.. The primary purpose for assessing students' reading is to inform teaching and improve learning. ~ Assessments provide students with ways to demonstrate their ability to apply key concepts and complex skills in authentic situations. It is important to make assessment tasks meaningful and as realistic as possible. Assessment should not be viewed as a single event at the end of instruction, but rather should be an on going, unobtrusive part of daily learning activities. Performance assessments need to be integrated across the curriculum and at all grade levels. Such assessments may take different forms such as demonstrations, products, research papers/projects or oral presentations. When students are provided with the standards expected of them, they should be able to self-assess along the way. Assessment must be aligned with instruction; it gives direction to instruction. Assessments should take place anytime during the school year and in different school and community settings. The wide variety of behaviors which students exhibit and the evidence of their literacy development should all be a part of the assessment

Reading Workshop

The Reading Workshop is a flexible organizational framework for literacy instruction that is highly recommended. The major components of the reading workshop are:

- Focus Lessons at which time the teacher provides direct instruction based upon students' needs;
- An activity period during which students read and confer with the teacher and each other; and
- A sharing time in which students have the opportunity to discuss their reading experiences and share their reactions with an audience.

Focus Lessons. These can be brief (10 to 15 minutes) instructional activities that teachers provide to meet the observed needs of their students. The lessons can be conducted at any time during the workshop, but are best done at the teachable moment when a student is most in need of instruction. Focus Lessons can address procedural or management issues in the class such as how to choose a book, ways of responding in a journal, or appropriate behaviors during workshop time. The lessons can focus on specific reading skills or strategies such as finding the main idea in a passage or using appropriate fix-up strategies when meaning is lost. Also, focus lessons can be used to introduce students to an author study, literary genres and themes, or a particular feature of the author's craft such as mood or figurative language.

Activity Period. At the beginning of the activity period, the teacher may conduct a "Status of the Class" report to determine what each student will be doing during the reading workshop. This information assists the teacher in creating the day's conference schedule. Students spend most of their time during the activity period reading instructional level books that they have chosen themselves. This can be done individually, in pairs or "book buddies," or in literature circles consisting of small flexible groups of students who are reading the same book.

The literature circles engage in open-ended discussions in order to expand and critique their understandings of the book. Students often express their reactions to the reading they do in response journals, in conferences with the teacher and during sharing time.

While the class is reading, the teacher holds conferences with one or more students to share and discuss a book, to provide a focus lesson on a particular skill or strategy or to document students' progress. Such conferences are usually brief (5 minutes or so) and are held to accomplish a single

purpose. Teachers often use checklists, anecdotal notes or some similar tool during the conference as part of their record keeping system.

Sharing Time. This activity can occur at any time during the workshop and may involve any number of students. Its purpose is to bring closure to a reading experience and to provide an audience for student responses. Among the popular sharing activities are:

- Book Talks -- opportunities for students to share unique selections or a journal entry.
- Reader's Chair -- a chair where students sit when they have a story or book that they would like to read, retell, or talk about with a group.
- Reader's Theatre -- students create a play from a story and present it to the class.

For additional descriptions and examples of Reading Workshop and Reader's Theatre procedures, see Cooper (1993), Roller (1996), Routman (1991), Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1995), and Hill (1992).

FEATURES OF TEXT

As readers interact with printed material to construct meaning, their comprehension is significantly affected by the unique characteristics of each selection. Consider the following examples:

- If the author of a short story chronologically presents one day's events in the life of the main character, readers are more likely to understand the short story than if the events are presented in a non-sequential order.
- If a journal article on a scientific topic contains numerous, undefined technical words, readers will experience more difficulty than if those words are clearly defined and illustrated in context.
- If the written directions for assembling a toy model are accompanied by clear, explicit diagrams graphically representing the necessary procedures, successful completion of the tasks will be easier than if the diagrams are not provided.

These examples illustrate three different types of text features that are important for a teacher to consider every time a new reading lesson is planned. These types or groupings of text features are:

- Text structure--the way the ideas in a selection have been organized
- Vocabulary--the labels for ideas and concepts
- Reader's aids--the variety of pictorial, graphic, typographic and structural representations used to convey information

The remainder of this section of the Handbook examines each of these types of text features and suggests procedures for incorporating them into instruction.

TEXT STRUCTURE

When authors create, they do not just randomly list their ideas. They give considerable thought to how those ideas are organized. AS readers interact with the text to construct meaning, their comprehension is facilitated when they organize their thinking- in a manner similar to that used by the author.

Obviously, all texts are different to a certain extent, but depending upon the author's purpose, the topic and the genre, reading selections tend to employ a few predominant structural patterns. These structural patterns can be used to teach students to comprehend more effectively. When readers know how to utilize the structure of text identify the information necessary for constructing meaning, their comprehension will improve.

There are two general types of text–narrative and informational. Narratives tell a story that may be true or fictional, and informational materials present information.

Narrative Text

The common structure or basic plan of narrative text is known as the "story grammar." Although there are numerous variations of the story grammar, the typical elements are:

- Setting–when and where the story occurs.
- Characters–the most important people or players in the story.
- Initiating event–an action or occurrence that establishes a problem and/or goal.
- Conflict/goal–the focal point around which the whole story is organized.
- Events–one or more attempts by the main character(s) to achieve the goal or solve the problem.
- Resolution–the outcome of the attempts to achieve the goal or solve the problem.
- Theme–the main idea or moral of the story.

The graphic representation of these story grammar elements is called a story map. The exact form and complexity of a map depends, of course, upon the unique structure of each narrative and the personal preference of the teacher constructing the map. Figure 1 illustrates a sample of a story map at the elementary level. Figure 2 illustrates a story map at the secondary level.

Story Map for Amazing Grace
by Mary Hoffman

Achieve

Theme:	Determination and hard work can help make a goal a reality.
Setting:	Grace's home, neighborhood and school
Characters:	Grace, Ma, Nana
Problem:	Grace wants to be Peter Pan in a school play but others said she couldn't because she wasn't a boy and because he (Peter) wasn't black.
Events:	Grace loves stories. Grace would act out stories giving herself the most exciting part. Grace volunteered to be Peter in their play. Nana took Grace to see the Romeo and Juliet ballet. Grace practiced the lines and actions of Peter Pan for tryouts. Everyone voted for Grace.
Resolution:	Grace was an amazing Peter Pan.

Figure 1

Story Map for Dew Drop Dead
by James Howe

Setting: Present day
Small New England town-Pembroke, Connecticut

Characters:

Sebastian Barth	David
Corrie	Mrs. Barth
Reverend Wingate	Sergeant Macy
Josh	Police Chief Alex Theoloulos

Initiating Event: Sebastian, Corrie, and David exploring the ruins of an old hotel spot a body through the window.

Events: The kids contact the police. The police investigate but find no body and are annoyed with the "false alarm." The kids are perplexed, sure they saw a body. Later, while exploring around the inn, they find another body- -or the same body. The police confirm a death. The kids are determined to find out who murdered the unknown man.

Resolution: The police and kids learn the body was that of a homeless man who died of exposure. Sebastian, Corrie, and David begin helping the homeless.

Theme: Homelessness is a serious problem that communities need to address.

Figure 2

One major purpose for story mapping is to assist teachers in planning and conducting reading instruction. Therefore, in preparing to have students read a narrative selection, it is recommended that teachers analyze the structure of the story and create a map. The process of creating such a map helps teachers determine what is important enough about a story to be emphasized in class. For example, the theme often indicates background knowledge that students will need to use to comprehend, and this can become the focus of a pre-reading discussion. Additional uses of story maps are explained and illustrated below.

- Use story maps to teach students the elements of the story grammar.

Most students have a sense of story structure when they first come to school, but many do not. Although this story sense probably will be developed or enhanced through natural exposure to the many stories read in school, it should not be assumed. Teaching students the structural elements enables them to anticipate the type of information they should be looking for as they read, and strengthens their recall of story events.

On a regular basis after a story has been completed, use the teacher-created map to define and illustrate the story grammar elements. The maps in Figures 1 and 2 were prepared by teachers for such purposes. With some primary level children it may be necessary, however, to begin by talking about the types of story events that occur at the beginning, middle and end of a selection.

- Use story maps to teach students to create and use their own story maps.

After students have had several opportunities to see how the major elements of the story grammar can be represented in a map, provide experiences for the students to become active participants in creating and using them. In this way students will become directly aware how knowledge of text structure will help them understand what they read. Use activities such as the following:

1. As they read a selection, have students complete a story map. Figure 3 contains a simplified version appropriate for use with younger children, and Figure 4 is a more complex alternative for upper grade students. Use these maps as the focus of the post-reading discussion.

Simplified Version of Story Map

Who is in the story?

Where does the story take place?

When does it happen?

What is it about?

How does it turn out?

Figure 3

General Story Map

Setting: When:

Where:

Characters:

Initiating event:

Problem/Goal:

Major Events:

Resolution:

Theme/Main Idea:

Figure 4

2. Have students use a story map format to compose oral and written book reports.

3. Regularly, after a group has finished a story, call on one student to retell it. A statement such as "Tell me about this story" can be used to elicit the desired open ended response. In this activity, encourage students to focus on the story elements in their retellings.

- **Use story maps to create questions that guide the discussion of a story.**

The discussion of a narrative selection will enhance students' understanding if the order of the questions posed by the teacher follows the organization of the story map. Also, consistently discussing stories in their logical sequence will strengthen students' sense of the important story grammar elements and thus increase their ability to comprehend stories they will read in the future. The following are sample questions that can be asked about each of the story grammar elements.

1. Setting

Where does the story take place?
When does the story take place?
Could the setting have been different?
Why do you think the author chose this setting?

2. Characters

Who were the characters in the story?
Who was the most important character in the story?
Which character did you enjoy the most? Why?
What is (a particular character) like?

3. Initiating event

What started the chain of events in this story?
What is the connection between this event and the problem?

4. Problem/goal

What is the main problem/goal?
Why is this a problem/goal for the main character?
What does this problem/goal tell us about this character?
How is the setting related to the problem/goal?
What is there about the other characters that contribute to this problem/goal?

5. Events

What important events happened in the story?
What did _____do about _____ ?
What was the result of this?
Why didn't it succeed?
What did _____ do next?
How did _____ react to this?
What do you learn about _____ from the course of action taken?

6. Resolution

How is the problem solved/goal achieved?
How else could the problem been solved/goal achieved?
How would you change the story if you were the author?

7. Theme

What is the theme of this story?
What do you think the author was trying to tell readers in this story?
What did _____ learn at the end of this story?

These sample questions are quite general and are suggested only to stimulate teachers' thinking about the story-specific questions they may want to ask. Figure 5 provides a story map outline that teachers can use to plan instruction. It also has space for noting important vocabulary and reader's aids that are discussed later in this section.

Story Map for Teacher Planning

Themes/Main Ideas:

Setting: When:

Where:

Major Characters:

Name	Traits	Function in Story

Initiating event:

Problem/goal:

Major Events:

Resolution:

Important vocabulary:

Important reader's aids:

Figure 5

Frameworks of this kind can be used by students to prepare for conferences in Reading Workshop. It is appropriate at this point to caution against over analyzing and thus fragmenting reading selections. Although the suggestions presented in this Handbook have demonstrable value, they can be over-used. Not every selection needs to be scrutinized and used for an instructional activity.

Informational Text

To understand informational text, readers need to identify the major concepts in the selection and the important details that support each major concept. The manner in which these major and supporting ideas are organized can vary. An author writes an informational selection to provide information for the reader. The nature of that information and the author's specific purpose determine how the writer organizes concepts and ideas.

Unlike narrative text that has one predominant structural pattern, informational text has several possible organizational structures. There is, however, no one, agreed-upon listing of these structures. Different nomenclature and slight variations in definition characterize attempts to categorize and describe informational text structures. For the sake of simplicity in this Handbook, four patterns of organization of ideas are used. They are:

- **Enumeration/Description**: A major idea is supported by a list of details or examples.
- **Chronological/Sequential Order**: A main idea is supported by details that must be in a particular sequence.
- **Comparison/Contrast**: The supporting details of two or more main ideas indicate how those concepts are similar or different.
- **Cause/Effect**: The supporting details give the causes of a main idea or the supporting details are the results produced by the main idea.

Although most students are aware of text structure in narratives, that is not true necessarily for informational text. This is because informational text is structurally more complex and because students have not been exposed to nearly as many good examples of it. To read informational materials effectively, students must become adept at detecting the relationships among the main ideas and their supporting details. Current research indicates that teachers need to provide daily read-aloud of informational as well as narrative selections.

In preparing to conduct reading instruction using an informational selection, it is recommended that teachers first create an informational map or a type of graphic organizer to assist in planning and conducting the lesson(s). Because of the possible complexity of informational writing, teachers may elect to use the following guidelines for creating an informational map as suggested by Vacca and Vacca (1996):

1. Look for the most important idea in the selection. Note any signal words that indicate an overall organizational pattern.
2. Locate additional important ideas. Identify their relationships to the most important one.
3. Outline or diagram these ideas, visually representing in some way the superordinate and subordinate concepts.

The resulting informational map or graphic organizer provides a verbal and visual display of the selection's structure that can take a variety of forms and serve several educational purposes. Figures 6 and 7 contain maps illustrating the chronological order and comparison/contrast patterns. Blank maps of all four structural patterns that can be used for teacher planning are provided. (Figures 11,12,13,14).

Not each paragraph has a readily discernible text structure. Where more than one text structure is present, a major or overall structure usually can be identified.

Text structure: Chronological/Sequential Order

Author's Purpose: To teach readers how to make lemonade.

Major Idea: The steps in making lemonade

Supporting Details: 1. Cut lemons

2. Squeeze lemons

3. Remove seeds

4. Add sugar and water

5. stir

6. Refrigerate

Figure 6

	Text Structure: Comparison/Contrast	
Author's Purpose: To show similarities and differences between baseball and basketball		
Supporting Details	Major Idea Baseball	Major Idea Basketball
Attribute 1: Where playedv	Played on a field	Played on a court
Attribute 2: Number on team	9 players on team	5 players on team
Attribute 3: Item used for play	Uses a ball	Uses a ball

Figure 7

- Teach students to identify the patterns of organization

Piccolo (1987) recommends introducing and working on the patterns one at a time and in the following sequence: chronological order, enumeration, cause/effect and comparison/contrast. Use short, easy paragraphs and the accompanying teacher created maps or graphic organizers to define, explain and illustrate each structural pattern. Help students discover the common distinguishing features in these examples.

For each pattern, demonstrate that certain words and phrases are 'signals' which help identify the organizational structure. Point out to students through these typical paragraphs how the words and phrases function. Table 1 provides a partial list of common signals for the four patterns of organization.

Signal Words and Phrases Associated with Patterns of Organization

Enumeration	Chronological/Sequential Order
for instance	first
for example	next
such as	then
to illustrate	initially
most important	before
in addition	after
another	when
furthermore	finally
first	preceding
second	following
Cause/Effect	**Comparison/Contrast**
because of	different from
as a result of	same as
in order to	similar to
may be due to	as opposed to
effects of	instead of
therefore	although
consequently	however
for this reason	compared with
if ... then	as well as
thus	either... or

Table 1

Demonstrate the importance of these signal words and phrases by showing students sentences or brief paragraphs with these terms deleted. Have students fill in the blanks and discuss why some alternatives make sense and others do not. Similarly, show the students pairs of sentences and have them identify the signal words and phrases that could connect them. Then have the students identify the organizational pattern that each option would create.

Example: It was raining very hard.
The river overflowed its banks.

Because it was raining very hard, the ...
(Cause and Effect)

It was raining very hard, and then the river ...
(Chronological Order)

Provide guided practice in identifying organizational structure by having students read paragraphs representing all four patterns. Ask them to describe how the ideas are organized and why they think so.

- A word of caution: Identifying patterns of organization is not the ultimate goal of text structure teaching. This ability is only beneficial as students internalize knowledge about text structure and subsequently use it to enhance their comprehension.
- Teach students to use the patterns of organization to improve their comprehension.

McGee and Richgels (1986) describe an instructional procedure for teaching students to attend to and use an author's structure while they are reading. As suggested above, begin by creating a map or graphic organizer for the selection to be read and use this to familiarize the students with the ideas in the selection. To do so, talk about the meaning of the organizer by expanding on the information and the relationships represented. Then direct the students to write a passage that incorporates the information represented in the graphic organizer. since they do this prior to reading the selection, the students need to rely on the organizational aspects of the organizer. Help guide this writing process by calling attention to each section of the organizer. Finally, have students read the selection to compare their passages with the complete text. Direct them to notice the similarities and differences between their writing and the original text and have them discuss what they have found.

Another effective technique to illustrate how the information fits together is by using Pattern Guides (Olson & Longnion, 1982). These are variations of the traditional study guides used by many teachers. Again, using the teacher-prepared informational map or graphic organizer, create a chart or diagram for students to complete that reflects the major concepts and supporting ideas of the selection. Often a given pattern guide will closely resemble the map that was created for instructional planning. Figure 8 provides an example of a cause and effect pattern guide. Direct the students to read the selection and fill in the requested information. Post-reading class discussion can focus on how the structural organization influenced the way the information was presented.

Sample Pattern Guide

During the Middle Ages (1450-1700) the Italian city states traded products with many other places. Aspects of this trade caused capitalism to grow in many ways.

As you read pages 215-217, find the specific aspects of trade and the effect that each had on the growth of capitalism.

Cause: Trade	Effect: Growth of Capitalism
1. (Large profits)	1. (Reinvested in business)
2. (Partnerships created)	2. (Business expanded)
3.	3.

Figure 8

For some students who become proficient in recognizing and using text structure as they read, it is appropriate to have them create their own graphic organizers either in groups or individually. This activity will explicitly reinforce the importance of text structure. Class discussion and debate can focus on how and why the various organizers differ.

- Use informational maps or graphic organizers to guide the discussion of a selection.

When teachers construct an informational map, they are identifying the most important aspects of that selection – the main concepts and supporting details. During-reading and after-reading discussions should center on these ideas. Relatively minor details, perhaps included as brief illustrations or as an author's aside, should not be emphasized. Sample questions used to stimulate and focus class discussions may be:

- Why did the author write this article?
- What was the author trying to prove in writing this?
- What is the most important idea in this selection?
- What are the three main points made by the author?
- Are there other ideas the author could have included?
- What statements support the author's main idea?
- How does the author prove his/her main point?
- Can you think of additional ideas that would support this point?
- Do you agree with the author? Why? Why not?

Muth (1987) recommends that questions also should be asked which help students (1) develop an awareness of the text structure present in the material and (2) understand the relationships among the major ideas. She states that this is one of the easiest yet most effective ways to ensure students' understanding and application of text structure knowledge. See Figure 10 for suggested questions for three patterns of organization.

Sample Questions Focusing on Patterns of Organization

Cause and Effect

- What is the cause/effect process the author is describing?
- Why did a cause/effect structure emerge?
- What is the cause?
- What is the effect?

Comparison/Contrast

- What is the author comparing/contrasting?
- Why is the author comparing/contrasting these things?
- Why did the comparison/contrast structure emerge?
- What are the advantages of...? the disadvantages of...?

Chronological/Sequential Order

- What is being described in sequence?
- Why did a chronological order pattern emerge?
- What are the major steps in this sequence?
- Why is the sequence important?

Figure 9

Figures 10,11,12, and 13 provide map or graphic organizer outlines that teachers can use or modify to plan instruction. Additional suggestions for incorporating mapping activities into instruction are provided by Flood and Lapp (1988), Johnson (1989) and Miccinati (1988). For more information on narrative and informational text, including descriptions of research-based instructional activities, see Muth (1989).

Text Structure: Enumeration

Author's Purpose:

Major Idea:

Supporting Details:

Major Idea:

Supporting Details:

Important Vocabulary:

Important Reader's Aids:

Figure 10

Text Structure: Chronological/Sequential Order

Author's Purpose:

Major Idea:

Supporting Details: 1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Important Vocabulary:

Important Reader's Aids:

Figure 11

Text Structure:
Comparison/Contrast

Author's Purpose:

Supporting Details	Major Idea	Major Idea
Attribute 1 Attribute 2 Attribute 3 Attribute 4		

Important Vocabulary:

Important Reader's Aids:

Figure 12

Text Structure: Cause/Effect
Author's Purpose:

Cause		Effects
_____		_____
(Main Idea)	→	_____
		_____
		(Supporting Details)
_____		
_____		
_____	←	_____
(Supporting Details)		(Main Idea)

Important Vocabulary:

Important Reader's Aids:

Figure 13

VOCABULARY

Words are the labels assigned to represent ideas and concepts. Understanding the meaning of words within the context of a passage facilitates reading comprehension. Teachers have traditionally recognized this fact by introducing the new or unknown vocabulary words prior to making a reading assignment. Also, the instructions emphasis in many content area classes is necessarily on helping students learn the many technical and specialized terms unique to that discipline. In a sense, to know a subject is to know its vocabulary. In this Handbook the term "vocabulary" is defined as "the meanings of words"; it is not used to mean "decoding" or "word recognition."

Vocabulary instruction, as it has often been conducted, is not always effective. Recent research findings indicate that the typical activities of looking up dictionary definitions, writing each word in a sentence, and memorizing word meanings for a test usually accomplish very little long-term vocabulary growth. While this research does not answer all of the questions or address all of the concerns about teaching word meanings, it does provide general guidelines and suggest specific techniques for maximizing the learning effects of the time spent on vocabulary instruction

Selecting Words for Instruction

Introducing the new or unknown words prior to having students read a selection is a traditional instructional practice. However, it may not be necessary, or even desirable because of the time required, to teach all new vocabulary items. A certain number of unknown or partially known words do not always decrease a reader's ability to comprehend. Research has found that (1) it is not necessary to know every word in order to understand a passage and (2) teaching all new words will not necessarily increase a reader's understanding. It is recommended, therefore, that teachers devote the time available to teaching only a limited number of terms. There are two criteria useful for selecting which new words to include in vocabulary instruction.

1. Teach words that are essential for understanding a reading selection.

   Teachers can apply this criterion by asking themselves the question "If readers did not know the meaning of this word, would they still be able to understand the passage?" Often, unknown words appear in a context that may not be related to a main idea or an important detail and, if omitted, would not be missed. Therefore, teachers should choose only those terms directly associated with the selection's major concepts or ideas.

2. Teach words that are common or generally useful for students to know.

Students at a particular grade level can be expected to become familiar with certain words because they will, with increasing frequency, encounter those words in the future. Also, words that, in the teacher's opinion, represent common knowledge should be included in instruction.

Once the important vocabulary terms have been identified, teachers need to realize that it may not be necessary to spend an equal amount of time teaching each word. Some terms, such as "tuber," can be quickly defined because students are familiar with examples of the concept such as potatoes and yams. More conceptually complex and unfamiliar terms like "photosynthesis," however, will require greater time to develop the necessary understanding.

Guidelines for Vocabulary Instruction

The main goal of vocabulary instruction is to expand each student's reading vocabulary to the greatest extent possible. Recent research has provided several principles or guidelines to assist teachers in attaining this goal. Each of these guidelines is identified and briefly explained below.

1. Provide opportunities for extensive reading.

   In his synthesis of the vocabulary research, William Nagy (1988) states"...the single most important thing a teacher can do to promote vocabulary growth is to increase students' volume of reading." It is the incidental learning that occurs while readers are interacting with meaningful selections which accounts for a large portion of a student's vocabulary development. The implication then is that as often as possible teachers should provide reading opportunities as a part of instruction in any subject and should encourage and facilitate independent reading both in and outside of school. This recommendation does not mean, however, that teachers should refrain from providing vocabulary instruction. The research clearly indicates that maximum vocabulary development results from a combination of extensive reading and the direct teaching of word meanings.

2. Teach words in related clusters.

   Words are not separate, disconnected units that need to be learned in isolation. On the contrary, words are related and interrelated. Synonyms, antonyms and root words are only three obvious examples of the connections that exist among words. When words are linked in sentences, their individual meanings change and are enhanced by each other. To teach words as separate entities in a list is to ignore their rich multiplicity of meanings.

When providing instruction in the meaning of a new vocabulary term, teachers should focus on its relationship to other words. For example, "cardiovascular" is introduced, defined and used several times in a chapter of a middle school health textbook. A teacher could easily and justifiably discuss that term and its relationship to "cardiac arrest," "cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR)," "cardiogram" and "cardiograph." This approach would strengthen the students' understanding and increase the number of newly learned words.

Readers comprehend and learn when they are able to connect the new information in their reading material to what they already know. Vocabulary instruction, therefore, should help students make the connections between unknown words and the knowledge they already possess. Having students free-associate or brainstorm whatever comes to mind when they are presented with a new word helps teachers assess prior vocabulary knowledge and facilitate connections.

Semantic Mapping and the **Pre-Reading Plan** are useful variations on this word association technique.

3. Provide multiple opportunities for active student involvement with new words.

Once new vocabulary has been introduced, students need more than just a few brief exposures to the term to truly learn it. A memorized definition may not automatically be applied when the word appears in text. Students need multiple opportunities over an extended period of time to encounter the new term in a variety of normal contexts. They need to read, hear, write and speak it so that the word is internalized and becomes part of their usable vocabularies.

In planning vocabulary instruction, teachers need to utilize techniques that actively involve students with newly introduced words. Learners should not be passive participants in expanding their vocabulary knowledge. They need to mentally manipulate words, to see similarities and differences among them, and to consider multiple definitions and shades of meaning. Word sorting activities described below and the Semantic Feature Analysis are typical examples of activities of this type.

Instructional Techniques for Vocabulary Development

Depending upon the material to be read and the words to be taught, the following techniques can be used to motivate students and facilitate learning. Teachers are reminded, however, that any technique should not be used as an isolated activity. Rather, all techniques should be directed to the larger goal of helping students acquire the word meanings necessary for reading comprehension.

Meaning-Based Word Groups

When the teacher's manual directs you to teach a list of words in conjunction with a narrative or informational selection, follow these procedures:

1. Eliminate words that are not essential for understanding or are generally understandable.
2. Examine the remaining words to determine which ones can be grouped together in some way for instruction.
3. For each word that still remains, create your own grouping of familiar terms that are related to it.

Word Sorts

As a follow-up activity, Vacca and Vacca (1996) suggest providing students with lists of words previously discussed in class and directing them to sort the terms into groups or categories. Working individually or in pairs, students look for the shared features of words.

"Closed Sorts" have students put words into predetermined categories. For example:

Categories: jobs, tools, cleaning products

plumber	hammer	doctor
lever	carpenter	wrench
sailor	soap	ammonia

"Open Sorts" require students to create and discuss their own categories. For example, given the following list of famous American surnames, they would be directed to generate as many categories as possible containing at least two items each.

Lincoln	Washington	Roosevelt
Jackson	Franklin	Eisenhower
Johnson	Jefferson	MacArthur
Ford	King	Kennedy

Category examples: Presidents, automobiles, cities, civil rights leaders, military leaders, etc.

Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy (Haggard,1982)

1. Tell students to bring to class two words they believe everyone should learn. These can be general knowledge words or terms related to a specific topic that the group will be reading about.
2. Have students write their words on the board as they enter the room.
3. In turn, students present their words to the group by defining them, explaining why the group should learn them and telling where the words were found.
4. Through discussion, the class should reduce the list to a predetermined number of most important words by eliminating duplicates and words already known by many.
5. The final list becomes the focus of vocabulary activities for the next few days.

Same Word/Different Subject

1. Explain to students that each school subject has technical vocabulary words and specialized words. Technical words are those which usually have only one meaning and are discussed in only one subject. For example:

   English – verb, gerund
   Biology– mitosis
   Mathematics-- rhombus

2. Tell students that specialized vocabulary words are those that are used in different subjects and usually have different meanings in each subject. For example, the word "division" could be used differently in history, mathematics and science classes.

3. Have students identify and discuss other specialized vocabulary words. Create a class list that can be added to regularly as new words are encountered and discussed.

Semantic Feature Analysis
(Pittelman, Heimlich, Berglund, & French, 1991)

Semantic Feature Analysis focuses students' attention on the relationship of words within categories. It illustrates how words are both similar and different and emphasizes the uniqueness of each word. Steps include:

1. Show students a list of words on the board which share some common feature. Example: eagle, dog, shark, mouse, fly.
2. Have students list some characteristic, quality or ability possessed by one of the items in the list. Put these words across the top of the board to create a matrix. Then have students fill in the matrix with pluses and minuses as illustrated. Where items are not completely dichotomous, a number scale (1-10) can be substituted.
3. When the grid has been completed and discussed, have students expand the matrix by suggesting additional items.

Item	4 legs	2 legs	Fur	Eyes	Wings
Eagle	-	+	-	+	+
Dog	+	-	+	+	-
Shark	-	-	-	+	-
Mouse	+	-	+	+	-
Fly					

Context Clues

As students read printed materials, they use a variety of context clues to determine the meanings of unfamiliar words. Research indicates that their use of these context clues can be improved by direct instruction. Direct instruction of context clues is as follows:

1. Explain to students how writers provide clues to the meanings of words. The following is a partial list of commonly identified context clues that can be used for this purpose. With younger readers, however, it is not necessary to define and label the different types.

    - Linked Synonyms–a term is linked with similar words in a series. Example: The boy was so mad with his friend, he screamed, "I hate, despise and abhor you."
    - Appositive–additional information or a definition is supplied. Example: The city-state of Venice was ruled by an oligarchy, a form of government in which only a few people have all of the power.
    - Compare/Contrast–antonym or phrase with opposite meaning is used to define another word. Example: Instead of being her normal, <u>loquacious</u> self, Sheila barely spoke to anyone at dinner.

- Cause/Effect-the cause for or result of an unknown word enables the meaning to be inferred. Example: Because the man deliberately tried to get him in trouble, Albert became irate.

2. As a natural part of a reading class, regularly model how to use a context clue. For example, call students' attention to a sentence such as "Instead of being her normal, loquacious self, Sheila barely spoke to anyone at dinner." Then say to the class, "In this sentence I'm told that Sheila was very quiet during dinner and that is not normal behavior for her. Therefore I believe that she normally talks a lot and that's what I believe the word 'loquacious' means."

3. Give students the opportunity for guided practice by using sentences containing nonsense words and sufficient context clues to signal their "meaning."

4. Periodically, while discussing a reading selection, ask students to explain how the meaning of certain words is suggested through the clues provided by the author.

Word Maps

The Word Map technique (Schwartz & Raphael, 1985) is useful for helping students develop a general concept of "definition." It makes them aware of the types of information which make up a "definition" and how that information is organized. A "Word Map" is a graphic representation of the definition of a word and focuses on three questions.

Figure 14 illustrates a blank map which is most useful with nouns and action verbs.

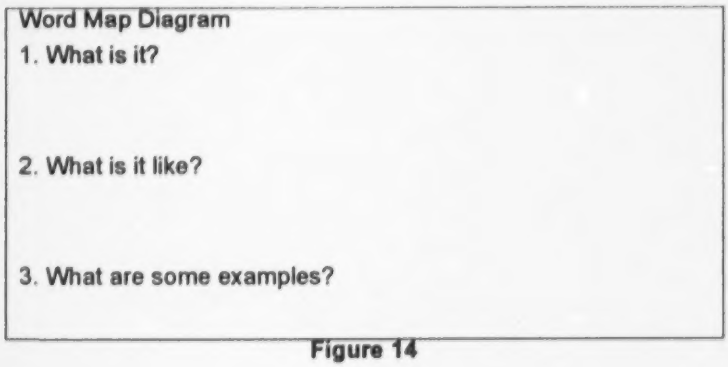

Figure 14

Steps for creating a Word Map diagram include:

1. Introduce the map to the students as a picture of what they need to know to understand a new word.
2. Demonstrate the use of the map by putting a general, common term in the central box (for example, automobile). Ask students to suggest words or phrases to put in the other boxes which answer the three questions.
3. Have students complete additional maps using other common terms to reinforce this process. Have them use completed maps to verbalize definitions.
4. Provide students with sentences each containing a new word. The sentences should provide enough context clues to enable students to complete a map. Discussion should focus on the importance of the context clues.
5. Use additional sentences with unfamiliar words that have fewer context clues. Encourage students to refer to the dictionary, encyclopedia or other reference books for help in completing the map.
6. Provide students with more sentences that only partially provide context clues and which are followed by a definition of the new word.
7. As students encounter new words in their independent reading, they should be encouraged to ask themselves the questions "What is it?" "What is it like?" and "What are some examples?"

Vocabulary Anticipation

1. After sharing information about an upcoming book, have children predict words that might be found in the text. Record the words on a chart. Share or read the book.
2. After reading, have students compare their predicted words with those found in the book.
3. As a group, decide which words must be known for a successful independent reading of the book. Include both high frequency and text specific words.
4. Using the list, create word cards for a vocabulary sort. Each child needs a package of word cards containing the vocabulary from the list compiled by the group. Ask the children to sort the words on their desks in a variety of ways. Options include by definition (a word that means...); by word usage (opposite or category); or by sound symbol (all the words that begin with...).

Word Web

1. Before reading, share a list of words that students will encounter in their reading. Record words in the circles of the word web.
2. Discuss meanings and uses as a group. Use dictionary only as needed.
3. Complete the word web during reading. As students encounter words, a word or phrase that will help them remember the words is recorded on the line beside each circle. *Note – words or phrases that will help students remember vocabulary will most likely not be a dictionary definition. (see Appendix)

READER'S AIDS

Reader's aids are those specialized features of text which authors use to convey or enhance meaning in the clearest and most efficient way possible. These features may clarify, explain or provide additional information to that contained in the body of the text. There are different types of reader's aids and many varieties of each type, all of which may be included by authors for different purposes. Among the most common reader's aids are:

1. Charts, graphs and tables that visually illustrate and summarize information.
2. Pictures, maps and cartoons that build background knowledge, provide vicarious experiences and arouse interest.
3. Italics, boldface print and other typographic features that highlight and call attention to the most important concepts.
4. Titles, headings and sub-headings that signal the organizational structure of the text.
5. Guide questions, purpose statements and review questions that set purposes for reading and aid in summarizing an author's main ideas.

Readers who use these aids appropriately increase their understanding of text. In some instances it is just as important to interact with these special features to construct meaning as it is to interact with the words of the text. Unfortunately, students often ignore these aids rather than treating them as opportunities to enhance their comprehension. Also, many teachers have noticed that students may not always apply what they have learned in reading class to the diverse reading tasks required in other content and academic work.

- Teach reader's aids as they are needed in the reading of a complete, meaningful selection.

All reader's aids serve as keys to unlocking the information that the author feels is important. Frequent instruction in and regular use of these features can greatly enhance comprehension. The processes involved in gaining meaning from reader's aids are essentially the same as those used in reading connected text (Vacca & Vacca, 1996); that is, readers must activate their prior knowledge and connect it to the new information. Therefore, instruction related to these special features should not be removed from the normal context of a selection. In this way students will see the help these features can be in improving comprehension. Also, students will realize that there are different types of reader's aids and that these aids can appear in different genres of text.

Before selections are used with students, teachers should examine them to locate the special textual features to determine how they can best be used with the class. Questions such as the following are important for planning appropriate instructional activities:

- How familiar are the students with this type of reader's aid?
- How familiar are the students with the information presented by the aid?
- What is the author's purpose for using the aid?
- How important is the aid to the overall meaning of the selection?
- What is the most appropriate way to use this text feature to help readers understand the selection?
- When is the best time to focus students' attention on the reader's aids: before, during or after reading?

When introducing a specialized text feature that students have not seen before or when especially difficult material is represented, it is recommended that teachers provide direct instruction about that feature prior to the reading. They should explain how the aid is structured, the benefit it can provide to the reader, and the situations when similar aids would be used. Teachers should model their thinking by telling how they are able to utilize the feature to gain meaning. If appropriate, follow-up practice should also be provided.

A natural way to inform students of the value of reader's aids is to make them a fundamental part of the directed reading lesson. Instructional activities such as Pre Reading a Chapter and the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity help to accomplish this goal. Teachers who do not make use of text features in conducting discussions or in asking questions are developing students who may not use these features in their independent reading. The following questions are typical of those that teachers can employ to foster students' use of reader's aids:

- What is the author's purpose for using this specialized text feature?
- What are the main ideas represented by this aid?
- Why did the author choose this type of aid to convey the meaning?
- Can you think of another way of conveying the same meaning?

In order to reinforce the importance and usefulness, regularly provide students with examples of reader's aids that they are exposed to in daily, out-of-school activities. Have the class read and discuss items such as bus schedules, television guides, city street maps, shopping mall maps, and newspaper weather maps. Essentially, instruction in reader's aids should be direct, practical and ongoing.

EFFECTIVE READING STRATEGIES

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE READING

The main goal of reading instruction is to help students develop as effective, proficient readers. Consider the following operational definition of this goal:

> Effective readers come to the printed page expecting what they read to make sense. By quickly previewing the text, they identify the type of material to be read and set their purpose for reading it. Such readers activate their personal knowledge by considering the topic or the title of the material, and this knowledge enables them to make global predictions about what they will be reading. As proficient readers proceed fluently through a selection, they continually monitor their comprehension by assessing and revising their predictions, by asking themselves questions, by making associations, by retaining important points or by clarifying confusions. If they are uncertain about the meaning of a passage, they utilize certain fix-up strategies such as stopping and going back over the confusing part or even asking a teacher or a friend to help. When they finish reading, proficient readers are able to retell and/or summarize the material they have read and make critical evaluations of the material.

As this definition illustrates, effective reading involves the use of a variety of strategies or behaviors that enable a person to construct meaning from the printed page. These strategies are:

Before Reading: Anticipating Meaning

- Previewing/Surveying
- Setting a purpose for reading
- Activating personal knowledge
- Making global predictions

During Reading: Constructing Meaning

- Assessing and revising predictions
- Making associations
- Monitoring comprehension
- Employing fix-up strategies
- Reading fluently

After Reading: Reconstructing and Extending Meaning

- Retelling what was read
- Summarizing what was read
- Evaluating what was read

All students, including those in the early stages of reading development, need to know that the reason for reading is to construct meaning, and they need to know how to go about accomplishing that task. Until recently, however, reading comprehension processes were largely a mystery, and it is only within the last decade that the art of reading has been understood well enough to allow for the development of insightful reading comprehension instruction. Research findings indicate clearly and consistently that, with proper instruction, students can develop effective reading strategies.

This section of the **Handbook** describes procedures and techniques useful for developing and sustaining the strategic behaviors that characterize proficient reading The strategies to be developed are presented in a "Before Reading," "During Reading" and "After Reading" sequence. Other educational writers may arrange or describe the strategies differently because there is no one absolute or totally agreed upon a way of doing so. The strategies are complex; they are interrelated, overlapping, and thus unable to be isolated. There is no hierarchy or scope and sequence of strategies; one strategy does not necessarily have to be mastered by a student before learning about another. Rather, it is appropriate to teach the strategies in relation to each other because distinct boundaries between them may not be obvious or clear.

The authors of this **Handbook** have tried to present the strategies in a clear and helpful way for teachers. It is recommended that the suggestions be used as a starting point for instruction and that good ideas from other professional sources be used as well. Also, new information and new procedures undoubtedly will be developed in the near future, and teachers should revise and adapt the suggestions presented here in light of that knowledge.

In the remainder of this section, a number of instructional techniques are described for helping to develop each strategy. Some of the techniques relate to more than one strategy or can be used on a regular basis for a variety of reasons. All of these recommended techniques have proved to be valuable for helping students to become effective readers. Teachers are cautioned, however, that their merely talking about a strategy once or twice or occasionally using one of the recommended techniques will not automatically result in proficient reading for some students. Similarly, having students demonstrate the use of a particular strategy or behavior in isolation is not the goal of reading instruction. Strategy teaching is meant to assist them in becoming independent readers. Only as each behavior is applied in real reading situations does it become truly beneficial. The strategy teaching that is recommended here should be done in the context of the meaningful reading of interesting selections.

Teachers need to develop students' awareness and use of each strategy gradually over an extended period of time. Research has identified four useful principles for providing instruction:

1. Teachers need to explain the use of a strategy with familiar text and explain why the strategy will help students to be more effective.
2. Teachers must model when and how to use a strategy by thinking aloud or verbalizing the thoughts one might have while reading.
3. Instruction should occur regularly in a variety of disciplines and students should gradually assume responsibility for applying a strategy.
4. Students need frequent opportunities to practice and use a strategy with a variety of authentic texts.

BEFORE READING: STRATEGIES FOR ANTICIPATING MEANING

Before they begin to read, effective readers quickly perform certain interrelated tasks. As a result of previewing or surveying the selection, they set a purpose for reading, they activate their background or personal knowledge of the topic, and they anticipate or predict the information to be read in the selection. Teachers need to employ techniques to foster the independent development of these behaviors by their students.

Previewing/Surveying

Previewing/Surveying is an important strategy because it helps readers anticipate meaning. This strategy can be performed quickly to identify the general idea of what a selection is about or it can be a more thorough process to ascertain the major ideas and organizational structure of the material.

- Teach students to preview/survey

Explain and model for the students the steps in previewing/surveying. Demonstrate how the process varies according to the type of material. Previewing/Surveying is most effectively used with informational text or narrative and procedural texts with illustrations.

Recommended steps in previewing/surveying:

- Read the title.
- Read the headings and subheadings, if present.
- Examine any accompanying visual aids such as maps, charts, graphs, illustrations, photographs, etc.
- Examine any words in italics and boldface print.
- Quickly read any introductory and concluding paragraphs or summaries.

Have students practice previewing/surveying by seeking answers to questions such as:

- What does this text seem to be about?
- What do I already know about this story/subjects?
- What do the subheadings tell me about the topic?
- What kind of text is this?
- What do the highlighted words/phrases tell me?
- What clues do the visual aids give me about the text?

Setting a Purpose for Reading

Meaningful reading cannot occur without a purpose. Even though proficient readers may not always consciously state their reasons for reading particular selections, they always have a purpose. A purpose influences the strategies that readers use and what they will remember from their reading If no specific purpose exists, reading tends to be haphazard and may lack any real value.

Traditionally, teachers provide students with a purpose for reading whenever an assignment is being made. Sample statements that typically precede the reading of a narrative or informational selection are "Read to find out what happens when...;" and "As you read look for three major reasons why..." Although this type of activity is of some help to students, they need to develop the habit of setting their own purposes for reading. Ineffective readers wait for purposes to be set for them, and too often only read to find the information requested by that purpose statement. Intrinsic or internalized purposes are preferable to those that are externally provided by the teacher. When students set their own appropriate purposes for reading, greater interaction occurs between them and the text, and better comprehension results.

In order to set a purpose, a reader must determine the type of material to be read, gain a sense of what the material is about, and based on that information and the needs that the reader has at that moment, select the best of several possible purposes. Essentially, setting a purpose requires a reader to respond to three questions. These questions are similar to the questions posed during previewing/surveying.

- Teach students to set a purpose for reading by using questions such as:

  What is the material about?
  What type of material is this?
  Why am I reading this material?

- Teach students how to determine the topic of a selection before they begin to read.

Explain to the students that quickly previewing/surveying a reading selection will give them some information about the topic and that knowing this makes reading much easier. Describe for them and model how reading the title and looking at any accompanying illustrations usually is sufficient to provide a general sense of the selection. For example, as you begin a new reading assignment say

> "I notice that the title of this article (or story) is _____. Now that could mean that it is about _____ or it could be about _____ As I glance at the pictures on this and the next page, however, I see that they include _____ and _____ so I'm pretty sure this is going to be about _____

Figure 15

- Teach students that there are many different types of materials.

The best way to demonstrate and ensure the development of this objective is to incorporate, on a daily basis, authentic materials representing a wide range of literary genres and subject matter into as many classroom activities as possible. Historical fiction and mystery stories as well as other types of fictional writing can be used at times during the school day other than that specifically designated for reading class. Non-fiction selections need not come just from textbooks. By using newspapers and magazines, teachers can engage students in the reading of informative articles, editorials, essays, letters and advertisements.

Each time a reading selection is introduced, the teacher should guide students in identifying the type of material that it is and talk informally about its main characteristics. Periodically, formal presentations and/or discussions need to be held to compare and contrast the characteristics of the types of texts most recently read by the students.

- **Teach students to select an appropriate purpose for reading based upon the type of material to be read.**

It is important for students to realize that people read different materials for different purposes. Too often reading may be viewed only as a school-related activity that is done to acquire the information or to master skills that will be tested. Class discussions, however, can be used to focus students' attention on the wide range of other possible reading purposes.

Create a detailed list of reading materials that may include such diverse texts as an encyclopedia, newspaper, novel, television schedule, medicine bottle label, recipe, billboard, comic book or telephone directory. Use this listing to discuss why people read each type of material. Among the common reasons students will cite for reading include: for fun, for escape, for information, to solve a problem, to write a report, and to learn how to do something. Create a chart of "Purposes for Reading" to display conveniently in the classroom. Students can refer or add to the chart as necessary.

Extend and enhance students' understanding of reasons for reading by discussing with them:

- The types of material that might be read for each purpose;
- How each type of material might be read for different purposes; and
- How their reading of a particular selection would change as they read it for different purposes.

As a natural follow-up, regularly hold purpose setting discussions, and provide as many opportunities as possible for the students to experience reading different texts for different reasons.

Activating Personal Knowledge

Many students begin to read a selection without identifying or thinking about the topic beforehand. This means that they are probably not aware that what they already know is an essential factor in understanding the material to be read.
The background or prior knowledge that students bring to the reading of a selection may be the most important factor affecting how well they comprehend. It is nearly impossible for students to understand material that they have been given to read if they have little or no personal knowledge of the topic. Comprehension occurs when the information that is being read is connected with that which is already known. If readers do not make the connection, then there is limited comprehension. Prior knowledge enables a person to read between and beyond the lines. Since what is actually printed on the page is never fully explicit but only suggested, readers must use personal knowledge to fill in gaps and to integrate different pieces of information in the message. The process of interacting with text to construct meaning is largely the process of combining new information with prior knowledge.

- **Demonstrate to students that it is important to use known information while reading.**

Show the students familiar expressions with one or two words deleted, and as they read the expressions have them fill in each blank with the exact word. (Example: A penny is a earned.) Explain to the students that they could read the statements, including the words that were not there, because they knew them already and because the words were in their minds. Advertising slogans and songs as well as movie and television show titles with which the students are familiar can also be used for this activity.

Give each student a copy of a brief passage that has words deleted, and have them fill in each blank with one word. Point out that they filled in some blanks because of their knowledge of English syntax and other blanks because of their knowledge of the subject matter. Also discuss with them why there were different, yet equally acceptable, responses that could be put in some blanks and how those responses related to a given reader's prior knowledge.

- **Make students aware of the personal knowledge that they have about a topic before reading.**

Pre-reading activities that activate background knowledge orient students to the topic and facilitate comprehension. Once the topic of a selection has been identified by previewing/surveying, students need to consider what they know about that topic and what it means to them. Teachers can easily and naturally use a variety of instructional techniques to focus students' attention on their prior knowledge. Several popular techniques begin by having students free associate or brainstorm whatever comes to mind as they are presented with the central concept of a reading assignment. A discussion of the words, phrases, and anecdotes produced by the class deepens and extends the background knowledge of all of the students and illustrates how every reader brings something different to the printed page. Although this brainstorming activity can be used by itself, other techniques can extend beyond this initial step.

The Pre-Reading Plan has students explain and supplement their initial associations through group discussions. Semantic Mapping involves the students in placing all of their associations into groups or categories and then labeling each category. Like Semantic Mapping, the Guided Writing Procedure also has the students categorize and label responses. The categories then are used to create an outline which is the stimulus for a pre-reading writing activity. The K-W-L procedure incorporates a writing activity following the brainstorming and involves steps in which students categorize, by listing on their individual worksheets, the information that they already know about the topic and the questions they want answered.

- Expand or clarify background information.

In most classrooms, if students are going to be reading about a topic even remotely appropriate for their age or grade level, they probably will have some pertinent background knowledge. However, the gap between what they already know and what they need to know to understand a given selection may be quite large. What students know may be vague, fragmented or inaccurate. Research has shown that misinterpretations or misinformation can be more troublesome than no background knowledge at all. Readers may manipulate the information in the text to fit their misconceptions and this is especially likely to happen with younger and poorer readers.

There are two techniques that help to focus attention on students' inappropriate background knowledge. Think Sheets (Dole & Smith, 1987) require students to list the ideas and questions that they have about the main topic or concept in the material to be read. The students then are directed to use what they have written to guide their reading. As they locate pertinent information related to their pre-reading responses, they write it down next to their original statements. The post-reading discussion should focus on the match between the textual information and the students' ideas. An Anticipation Guide also taps into students' preconceived notions by having them agree or disagree with teacher-created statements designed to challenge or confirm students' opinions. Discussions before and after the reading of the selection will highlight inconsistent and inaccurate information.

Sometimes students' existing knowledge is inadequate and teachers need to provide them with additional information that will enable meaningful reading to occur. This is necessary most often with informational selections. One of the easiest ways to give necessary knowledge is for the teacher to lecture or talk to the students. By explaining, telling anecdotes and giving multiple examples, teachers can usually build enough background for students to comprehend the selection. Two techniques can be used to guide teachers in providing text-specific background information. A Graphic Organizer is created when the major concepts of a selection are arranged in a graphically representative hierarchy. While this Graphic Organizer is displayed to the class, the teacher explains what the concepts mean, why they are important, and how they are related. The Pre-Reading of a Chapter can be useful with content area textbooks. The teacher can display on the chalkboard the headings and sub-headings which form the outline of a chapter in a typical textbook. This outline can serve as a guide for the teacher to use while talking about the important information related to and found in the chapter.

Making Global Predictions

Effective readers seem to continuously and automatically anticipate what they will be reading just before they get to it. Their background or prior knowledge enables good readers to make these ongoing predictions. In essence, they think ahead by anticipating upcoming words and thoughts by drawing upon what they know about the structure of the language, about the topic of the passage, and about the context of the reading situation. Reading for them is making predictions and then confirming the

accuracy of those predictions. Although discussed here as an important "Before Reading" strategy, prediction never ceases during reading. As the teaching suggestions illustrate, predictions are made and then confirmed, revised or rejected based upon the information in the material that was just read. When readers produce nonsense words or use words that do not fit into the flow of the text, it is obvious that they are not anticipating meaning. Students need to learn that taking risks and guessing is a part of the reading process.

- Demonstrate to students that reading is a predicting and confirming activity.

Text Impression is a thinking-reading strategy that uses important or interesting vocabulary to stimulate and guide predictions. Before reading, the teacher lists a few important or interesting words from the text on the chalkboard. The group discusses the words and predicts what the selection will be about. After the students have completed the reading, they compare the author's use of the words with their predictions. Children's predictions may be used to create a new text with their ideas.

The Inferential Strategy (Hansen, 1981) facilitates students' ability to connect new information with their personal knowledge. The teacher analyzes the reading selection and chooses three or four ideas that are important or difficult to understand. For each central idea, two questions are developed. The first question should tap background knowledge related to the idea, while the second question encourages students to make a prediction about the idea's role in the reading selection. Prior to reading, responses to the questions are discussed. Students then read the selection, comparing their background knowledge and predictions to what actually appears in the text and evaluating the central ideas.

Integrating Pre-Reading Strategies

After the pre-reading strategies have been explained and modeled for students, teachers may want them to use a frame similar to the one in Figure 16 prior to beginning a new reading assignment. This example of a guided practice activity helps students to integrate the pre-reading strategies. It also provides feedback to the teacher about how effectively students are using these strategies.

Title of Selection:
Type of Text:
Topic:
My purpose for reading:
What I know about this topic:
What I expect to read:

Figure 16

DURING READING: STRATEGIES FOR CONSTRUCTING MEANING

Traditionally, comprehension instruction has emphasized helping students before and after reading rather than assisting them in what to do during reading. While pre- and post-reading discussions and activities certainly enhance understanding, they do not focus on what students are doing during actual reading time, the time when the bulk of reading comprehension takes place. Research has shown that as effective readers proceed fluently through a selection, they continually monitor their comprehension to make sure that the material makes sense. If the meaning is not clear and their comprehension falters, they employ certain fix-up strategies to regain understanding. Teachers cannot assume that students will acquire these behaviors by themselves. Therefore, they must teach these strategies which are essential for constructing meaning while interacting with text.

Assessing and Revising Predictions

As described earlier, making predictions is an integral, ever-present part of the reading process. Whether consciously stated or not, readers are continuously anticipating what comes next. When used as a "before reading" strategy, students rely on their background knowledge to make global predictions. When used as a "during reading" strategy, they combine their background knowledge with the textual information provided to assess those global predictions and revise those which have been found to be inappropriate. The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity has the students stop their reading of a selection at appropriate points to evaluate, modify, and change their earlier expectations. Regular discussions of this nature convey to students the necessity of, and procedures for, re-thinking their predictions.

Develop students' ability to predict and confirm as they read.

An easy way to address this goal, especially with younger students, is through the use of "predictable" literature. By reading stories such as Brown Bear, Brown Bear by Bill Martin, Jr., which contain repeated patterns of events and sentences, the teacher can create a conscious sense of anticipation within the students. Stopping the reading at appropriate points in the story and allowing the group to say the repeated words is an enjoyable, interactive procedure. For a bibliography of "predictable" stories and additional suggestions for their classroom use, see Heald-Taylor (1987).

The traditional Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) devised by Stauffer (1975) is a versatile procedure for guiding students through either narrative or informational selections. After they are directed to examine the title and any introductory illustrations, the students are asked to make predictions concerning the content they expect to read. The teacher then records these predictions on the chalkboard. Next, the students read a predetermined segment of the text to check their

predictions. Then the group evaluates those predictions as they eliminate or modify the ones that were incorrect and generate new ones that seem to be more appropriate. This predict-read-verify cycle is continued until the selection has been completed.

Garrison and Hoskisson (1989) suggest that students will be helped to think more logically during a DR-TA if instead of telling them to read to prove their predictions are correct, the teacher tells them to read to determine if their predictions are incorrect. Those authors recommend conducting the discussions using the following types of questions:

- Have you been proven wrong yet?
- Have the facts in the story spoiled your predictions?
- What makes you think your idea will not be wrong?

Although the emphasis shifts from confirming to refuting predictions, the students still must justify their reasons for maintaining or rejecting their predictions.

Irwin and Baker (1989) and Johns, VanLeirsburg, and Davis (1994) recommend that the teacher direct the predicting activities by drawing students' attention to specific contextual features of the selection rather than asking them simply to guess what will come next. Sample questions to accomplish this focusing are:

Narrative Selections:

1. What do you know about this character that helps you predict what s/he will do next?
2. Given the situation in the story, what will possibly happen next?
3. In stories like this one, what usually happens next?

Informational Selections:

1. What do you know about this subject that can help you predict what will be covered next?
2. Look at the sub-heading (or picture, graph, etc.). What does the sub-heading lead you to believe will be presented next?
3. Why do you think the author wrote this? On the basis of that, what information will be presented next?

Another modification of the DR-TA is the Directed Inquiry Activity (Thomas, 1986) which is appropriate for use with informational selections that provide numerous facts. After the students survey the title, sub-headings and illustrations, they are asked to predict answers to the questions "Who? What? Where? When? Why? and How?" They are directed to read to determine the accuracy of their predictions.

- **Teach students to use selected graphic organizing techniques to monitor and assess predictions.**

The KWL PLUS technique is a thinking-reading strategy that can be used with fiction or non-fiction. The PLUS has been added to the original KWL organizer to encourage the use of categorization and summarization. After students have completed the KWL chart, they then categorize the information and use it to create a group summary or graphic organizer. (see Appendix)
The I-Search is a research technique that requires students to create their own questions for either a piece of fiction or non-fiction. They identify the sources for research, then locate, formulate and write the answers to their questions. (see Appendix)

Making Associations

Good readers enhance their comprehension by making associations with known information. Such readers draw on their background knowledge to visualize places, events, and people that are described in the text.

- Teach students to make associations while reading independently.

Students may not automatically make associations in monitoring their comprehension unless they are specifically taught to do so. Gambrell, Kapinus and Wilson (1987) describe a procedure for instructing students in how to use mental imagery to help them interact with text.

- Tell students that they can't understand more clearly and better remember what they read if they can, in their mind, picture the information they are reading.
- Model the associations you make for the students by telling them about the pictures you create in your mind as you read a descriptive passage. Then read additional passages to them and discuss how your associations and theirs compare.
- Provide reading materials that lend themselves to making associations and remind students to use the strategy as you have them read. Whenever possible, as a group discusses a reading selection, have students describe the associations they created as they read.

It is important for teachers to remember that discussions that relate to associations are open-ended and that each person's responses will be unique. Many students will need

extra time and much encouragement before they participate regularly and openly in sharing their associations.

- **Develop students' ability to restate information.**

A particularly effective way for readers to monitor their understanding of a selection is to periodically stop and tell themselves what they have been reading. If readers can restate in their own words what they have just read, then they know that comprehension has occurred. However, if paraphrasing proves to be difficult, they know that some type of fix-up strategy will probably be necessary to improve their understanding.

The distinctions between the strategies of paraphrasing and summarizing, which is discussed later in the Handbook as an "After Reading" strategy, are not great, nor always distinguishable. It is generally agreed that paraphrasing is when the reader simply rephrases the main idea of a paragraph or short passage. Summarizing, on the other hand, is the identifying and condensing of the major themes and important information found in a longer passage or complete selection. Point out to the students when working with either strategy, that the two go hand-in-hand for condensing the meaning of what has just been read. To assist students in being able to restate the main idea of short selections, use activities such as these illustrations:

- Give students a short passage accompanied by two paraphrases of it. Have students discuss which they think is better and why.

- Have students bring in brief newspaper articles and cut off the headlines. Ask each student to read someone else's article, then write a new headline and compare it to the original.

- Read a passage to the students and ask them to write a title and tell why it represents the main idea.

- Give the students paragraphs in which the main ideas have been removed. Ask them to read the detail sentences and create a main idea statement. This procedure can begin with simple examples such as:

    - Tom enjoys baseball.
    - Tom enjoys football. **(Tom enjoys many sports)**
    - Tom enjoys volleyball.

It then can move to more complex examples such as:

- Jason can barely keep his eyes open.
- He keeps yawning and yawning. **(Jason is very tired today.)**
- Even though math is his favorite subject, he can't seem to pay attention.

Students will probably need multiple opportunities to engage in these activities in order to become adept at paraphrasing. As students acquire an understanding of paraphrasing, discuss with them how to determine when they should pause to do so. Generally, they should be encouraged to paraphrase after each of the selection's major divisions. The teacher-created maps used to plan instruction should be useful for making decisions about when to paraphrase.

- **Teach students to recognize the situations when they will need to clarify the meaning of a passage.**

Instruction in clarifying can be organized around two questions:

- Does this information agree with what I already know?
- Does this information fit in with what the author has already told me?

It is recommended that teachers use short passages with specific mistakes purposely included in order to explain, model and provide practice in the strategy of clarifying. Several illustrative examples follow.

- Provide students with paragraphs that contain ambiguous words. Ask the students to detect the words that can be taken more than one way, to explain the different interpretations, and to decide which one is most probable given the rest of the paragraph.

Example: The tennis player refused to continue because the racket was so terrible. It made concentrating on the match impossible. The official asked the crowd to be quiet.

- Give students paragraphs in which the sentences are not arranged in the best sequence. Ask them to locate the misplaced sentences and to reorder the paragraph so that it flows more logically.

Example: The surgeon made a precise cut across the length of the patient's stomach. He searched the area for the fragments of the bullet. The surgeon made sure that the anesthesia had taken effect. Once the fragments were located, he carefully removed them.

- Present students with sentences and paragraphs that contain information that contradicts their prior knowledge. Have them point out the information that is inconsistent and discuss whether the text or their prior knowledge is accurate. They should also be encouraged to consider ways that the apparent conflict between prior knowledge and the text might be resolved. In the following example, an apparent contradiction to readers' prior knowledge occurs.

Example: Jorge was concerned that he might run out of ice before the evening was over. That would really put a damper on the party. He grabbed the ice trays, filled them with hot water and put them in the freezer. Within a rather short time, he had enough ice to go around.

- Present students with paragraphs in which information from an earlier sentence contradicts information in a later sentence. Have them detect the contradiction, and using clues from the paragraph or passage, determine which information is likely to be correct.

Example: It was an ugly day. Clouds filled the sky, completely blocking out the sun. Nedra noticed a shadow moving toward her from behind. She knew it was the killer.

- Present students with paragraphs containing irrelevant or unrelated information. Have them identify the information that does not belong.

Example: Birds build nests in a variety of places. Robins build nests in trees, and pheasants build nests in bushes. Robins are much friendlier than pheasants. Eagles build nests on rocky cliffs.

- Show students examples of text that are not considerate. Ask them to point out to you where the author has not been as clear as possible. Have students look for incomplete, erroneous, ambiguous, conflicting or irrelevant information. Have them rewrite the passage to make it more understandable.

Example: Leslie and Jessie wanted to play together on the team. They practiced their passing over and over again. They were especially good at down and out patterns. When tryouts began, the manager pulled him aside and said that because this was the boy's team, she couldn't play. The team had been really good last year. What would they do without him?

By being aware of why comprehension breaks down, students often are able to clarify confusing text. However, pausing and reconsidering may not always restore understanding, and students may need to resort to using fix-up strategies.

Monitoring Comprehension

Effective readers constantly check to see if what they are reading makes sense. To appreciate fully the importance of monitoring meaning, consider the many levels at which comprehension might break down. As Collins and Smith (1980) indicate, readers might fail to understand:

- New words or known words that do not make sense in context;
- Sentences that are vague, ambiguous, or inconsistent with prior knowledge;
- Paragraphs whose sentence relationships are unclear, conflicting, or connected in several possible ways; and
- How the text fits together as a coherent whole.

Comprehension monitoring involves the use of specific, related strategies that keep readers constantly abreast of how well they understand the text. The strategies help readers recognize minor comprehension breakdowns before they escalate into major ones. To monitor their understanding, effective readers employ the strategic behaviors of revising predictions, self-questioning, making associations, restating and clarifying.

Directing students to read to find the answers to questions is a traditional instructional procedure used by teachers to set a purpose for reading. Proficient readers seem to have internalized this behavior and continually formulate and seek answers to questions throughout the reading of a selection. Many of the strategies described in this Handbook involve the reader in self-questioning. This practice enables them to maintain an ongoing, meaningful interaction with the text. Less effective readers often lack specific direction and tend not to question themselves as they read.

- **Teach students the appropriate questions to ask as they read.**

Explain and model different types of questions that a reader can use to monitor comprehension. At the most basic level of comprehension monitoring, readers ask themselves if they understand the material. Typical questions are:

- Do I know the meaning of this word?
- Does this sentence make sense to me?
- How does this sentence fit with the others?
- What is the author's main point?

Tell the students that when they cannot answer these questions satisfactorily, they should use a fix-up strategy to help provide the necessary information.

When reading a narrative selection, the students should ask questions derived from the story grammar. Among the major questions are:

- When and where does the story take place?
- Who are the main characters?
- What is the central problem of the story?
- What are the main events of the story?
- How is the problem resolved?
- What is the theme of the story?

Additional information on story grammar is located in the Features of the Text section of the Handbook.

Questions that can be asked while reading informational selections are:

- What is the author's purpose?
- What are the major ideas?
- What are the supporting details?
- How is the information organized?

- **Teach students to ask questions as they read.**

Some specific techniques useful for demonstrating how to ask questions are described below.

- **Your Own Questions**: Vacca and Vacca (1996) suggest that after having students read an introductory portion of a selection, direct them to write several questions that they think will be answered in the rest of the selection. Briefly discuss some of the questions with the group, and then have them finish the reading. The post reading discussion should focus on which questions were or were not answered and why. This technique can be varied by having the students ask questions they would like to have answered after looking at just the title and any accompanying pictures and illustrations.

- **Questions Exchange**: Following the reading of a selection, have students write questions that they feel are important and which could be asked during a post reading discussion. The students can exchange questions and discuss which ones they feel focus on the most significant information.

- **News Questions:** Explain that newspaper reporters try to write articles that answer the 5 W's and "H" (who, what, where, when, why and how). Give the students news stories, and direct them to look for answers to those questions as they read.
- **Investigative Questioning** (Inquest): Shoop (1986) suggests familiarizing students with the types of questions that reporters ask when they are covering a news story. Then at appropriate points in a story that the class is reading, stop and have one student role-play a character while the others become investigative reporters. The reporters ask probing questions seeking an evaluation and interpretation of the story's events as seen through the eyes of the character being interviewed. After the reading is completed, discuss with the class the value of the questions that were asked. Such discussion reinforces the use of effective questions.
- Two procedures, which are more general, provide opportunities for students to practice and refine their self-questioning techniques. **Question - Answer Relationships (QAR) and Reciprocal Questioning (ReQuest)** can be regularly adapted into classroom reading discussions.
- **QAR** instruction helps students understand that information from both the text and their own experience is important for comprehension. In this approach, students classify various types of comprehension questions according to how they can be answered. They use the two "In the Book" categories (Right There and Think and Search), as well as the two "In My Head" categories (Author and Me and On My Own). Teachers show that the nature of a question determines the process that must be used to answer it. Students come to realize what information sources are available for answering questions and when and how to use them. They learn to consider information both in the text and from their own background of experiences. See Raphael (1982) for a more thorough explanation of the QAR technique.
- In **ReQuest** the reading of a portion of text is followed initially by the student asking the teacher questions and then by the teacher asking the student questions. This alternating question format permits the students to witness the teacher's modeling of effective questions. Also, in the role of the question-asker, students discover the most likely information sources for creating questions, and thus they can develop the habit of self-questioning.

Employing Fix-Up Strategies

The monitoring behaviors previously described are inextricably connected to the fix-up strategies that are employed by effective readers. As good readers proceed through a selection actively monitoring their understanding, they periodically use one or more fix up strategies to compensate for their failure to comprehend a particular passage. Only when it is necessary to stop and seek outside help is the reading actually interrupted.

In most instances the behaviors occur quickly and naturally as a part of the total reading process. Interestingly, many students fail to use these strategies because they either have not been exposed to them or, for some reason, they think that the strategies are not permissible. Teachers need to lay these misconceptions to rest.

- **Teach students about the importance of using each of the fix-up strategies.**

According to Collins and Smith (1980) and Pitts (1983), effective readers use the following strategies, singly or in combination, to restore comprehension:

- Ignore small problems and move on. Teachers need to impress upon students that skipping portions of text and reading ahead for clarification is a legitimate way to construct meaning.
- Adjust rate of reading. Students need to learn to slow down when confronted with difficult text. They also should be aware that speeding up to look ahead may reveal the author's overall plan.
- Delay judgment. Readers sometimes find it useful to simply keep reading and allow the writer to fill in the gaps, add more information, and clarify confusing points.
- Hypothesize about word, sentence, and paragraph meaning. Readers should be encouraged to guess at meanings and keep them in mind long enough to see if the guesses make sense.
- Reread the current sentence or the previous context. Sometimes a second exposure to a difficult sentence increases understanding. In other instances, readers may find it necessary to reread larger chunks of previously presented information in order to comprehend.
- Seek an expert source of clarification. Students should use encyclopedias, dictionaries, and other reference books, parents, and teachers to clear up comprehension roadblocks.

- **Use instructional procedures to foster the use of fix-up strategies.**

Have students read sentences and paragraphs containing nonsense words or words that have been deleted. For example:

> The enivob was grazing in the pasture. Soon it would be time for it to return to the barn. The farmer was eager to get the enivob's milk to sell at market.

By incorporating teacher modeling and group discussions in this type of simulated activity, students can learn how to fix-up comprehension when they come to words they do not know. They can be encouraged to read to the end of the sentence (ignoring the problem temporarily), to look for clues (delaying judgment) and to make a guess based upon available information (hypothesizing). If the students still cannot determine the meaning of the nonsense word it can be suggested that they reread the sentence or previous context slowly (adjusting rate) or read ahead for possible clarification. As a last resort, students can ask the teacher for help (seeking expert assistance).

At times students may have the false impression that it is wrong to seek help in understanding text. They may believe that if they cannot figure something out, then they are failures. Teachers should work to dispel this attitude by showing students instances where there are not sufficient context clues to signal the meaning of an unknown word and where no amount of rereading or reading ahead will help. For example, in the sentence "The teacher told Mike his composition was platitudinous," the last word is crucial for understanding. If readers do not have a sense of that word, there is no way of knowing if the teacher's comment is positive or negative. Also, it is impossible to tell what Mike's writing really is like. Explain that asking someone for help or referring to a dictionary may be necessary for comprehension to occur.

Further discussions with students can focus on:

- Why they sometimes have trouble understanding what they read;
- The types of materials that are most often troublesome;
- The different sources of outside assistance that they might use to help them understand a difficult portion of text;
- The type of help each source is mostly likely to provide.

To help students learn to adjust their reading rates, show them a variety of reading materials such as a popular magazine, a cookbook, a novel, a newspaper, a telephone book and a mathematics textbook. Discuss with them the purposes they would have for reading each of these materials and how the rate of reading would vary according to the purpose. Irwin and Baker (1989) suggest using a method similar to Table 2 to focus such a discussion.

Reading type	Speed	Purpose
Scanning	Very fast	To locate specific facts such as number in a telephone directory
Previewing/Surveying	Fast	To acquire a general sense of the material from examining the introduction and topic sentences.
Recreational Reading	Moderate	To read for enjoyment.
Study Reading	Slow	To remember information for a test.
Critical Reading	Moderate Slow	To evaluate material and React in a personal way.
Analytical Reading	Very Slow	To understand every detail in difficult material (e.g., a word problem in a mathematics' book).

Table 2

Another technique to teach students to vary their reading rate is Dual Selections. Have students read two very different kinds of short text selections--perhaps an easy short story and a complex set of directions. Then discuss with the group how the characteristics of each selection and the purpose for reading it affected their reading rate. Additional possible pairings are a limerick and a mathematical word problem, an article in Readers Digest and a chapter in a history textbook, and directions for assembling a model and a television time schedule.

Reading Fluently

Effective readers are fluent readers. They read automatically and with a rate appropriate for the text. This fluency enables them to gain meaning; by the same token, gaining meaning enables them to read fluently. Less effective readers, on the other hand, proceed in a slow, word-for-word manner laboriously sounding out unknown words and occasionally producing nonsense words or even stopping altogether. The attention of such readers is focused on the mechanics of the reading act, and this significantly limits their ability to comprehend. They view reading as saying all of the words correctly, and they miss the point that it is necessary for understanding to occur.

Because of certain instructional practices used in schools, less effective readers may not know what fluent reading is or why it is important. Their instruction is often skill oriented, over-emphasizing phonics as well as the reading of short segments

contrived text or worksheets. These readers may not know what fluent reading feels like because instructional programs stress word analysis and include materials that are clearly difficult for them. It is recommended that teachers demonstrate and model fluent reading and use the following techniques to develop this facility within each student.

- **Demonstrate fluent reading for the students.**

The task of demonstrating fluency is easily accomplished by orally reading some interesting selection to the students every day. Although some teachers may view this as only a pastime that intervenes between other, more significant classroom activities, reading aloud to the class is very important and should be treated as such.

- **Develop students' reading fluency.**

Two often-suggested techniques to help students develop the habit of automatic reading are described briefly below.

Repeated Reading: Give students a relatively short, easy selection or story, and direct them to practice reading the material aloud two or three times each day. Tell them that the goal is to read the selection as fast and as accurately as possible. Tape record the first and last sessions of this activity to demonstrate their progress.

Choral Reading: Have students select, practice and perform the choral reading of poetry or other appropriate material. See Miccinati (1985) for ways to vary choral reading activities. Also, as you read and reread favorite books to the class which have repetitive phrases, have the students read the repeated portions in unison.

While reading fluency activities are often thought to be useful only in remedial situations, Rasinski (1989) suggests principles for using them with students of all ability levels. Additional valuable suggestions regarding fluency can be located in Dowhower (1989), Topping (1989) and (Koskinen and Blum, 1986).

Integrating "During Reading" Strategies

Thinking aloud by the teacher is particularly important in helping students learn about fix-up strategies. It shows them not only how, when and why a strategic behavior is used, but it also demonstrates the inter-relatedness of the various monitoring and fix-up strategies. The following example illustrates how teachers can model the passage they are reading to the class one sentence at a time.

Like so many others, Paul had felt that most of the homeless deserved to be destitute.

"When I read this sentence, I don't know what the word 'destitute' means. I have the feeling that it's an important word so I better try to figure it out. Maybe reading the sentence again will make the meaning clear." The teacher reads the sentence aloud again. (Rereading) "All I can think of is that 'destitute' has something to do with the homeless. My best guess then is that it means being poor. (Hypothesizing) "I'll have to keep reading and hope that the author will clarify it for me." (Ignoring the problem and moving on)

He remembered thinking that they were all lackadaisical and preferred living on the street to actually working for a living.

"OK, when I came to the word 'lackadaisical' I knew immediately it was going to be trouble. I had no idea what it meant. I slowed down to be on the lookout for clues. (Rate adjustment) By the time I got to the end of the sentence, though, I could tell that it meant lazy. The part that said street people won't work for a living gave it away."

Now that Paul lived among the street people and saw their misery firsthand, he was singing a different tune.

"Why would Paul choose to live among the street people? (Self questioning) This sentence makes me think that Paul himself must be a street person--maybe someone whose luck turned bad. That would explain why he is singing a different tune. Still, I better keep reading until I have more information. (Hypothesizing and Delaying Judgment) I'm pretty sure now that 'destitute' means not having much because the author talks about how miserable life is on the streets and this fits with what I've heard about the conditions." (Clarifying)

Going undercover had shown him that his instincts as a reporter could be dead wrong.

"I was completely wrong. Paul is a reporter, not one of the street people." (Clarifying) There wouldn't be a Pulitzer Prize in this story, but it would still be the most rewarding one he had ever written.

"The term 'Pulitzer Prize' is new to me. The story makes me think that it's some kind of an award that reporters can win. To be sure, I should ask someone who might know or else consult a reference book like an encyclopedia. (Seeking an expert source) One thing I do know is that the

author is trying to say that we shouldn't judge others until we've been in the same position." (Restating)

To help students develop the ability to apply and integrate monitoring and fix-up strategies, teach them to use a comprehension-rating system. Davey and Porter (1982) recommend having teachers explain and model a three-point rating scale that students use to indicate how well they understand their reading of a selection. On paper strips attached to the margin, the students respond to each paragraph by writing a "1," "2," or "3" to indicate their level of comprehension.

1 = "I understand well. I could explain it to someone else."
2 = "I sort of understand. I couldn't explain it."
3 = "I don't understand."

Post-reading group discussion can focus on how and why the paragraphs were rated and how any problems could be clarified. Variations of this comprehension rating concept are described by Smith and Dauer (1984) and Vaughn and Estes (1986).

Teachers regularly have students read aloud for many valuable reasons. These oral reading activities provide opportunities to foster students' conscious, independent use of fix-up strategies. When students make oral reading errors, do not respond immediately, but allow them time to realize their mistake and to self-correct. Fix-up strategies are used when meaning is lost, and readers need time to become aware of their lack of understanding and to take steps to remedy the problem. Occasionally, when a reader has self-corrected, ask for an explanation of how that person was able to make the correction. If students produce errors that still make sense in the context of the passage, do not respond or stop the reading. For example, if a reader substituted the word "quickly" for "rapidly" in the sentence "The man rushed rapidly from the room," the meaning of the sentence has not changed. Obviously the reader has understood and need not be corrected.

When students make errors that change the meaning of the passage considerably and then do not correct themselves, the teacher should focus their attention on these problems. Ask questions such as:

- Did that make sense?
- What word would make sense there?
- What could you do to figure out the meaning of this passage?

If two or three attempts at helping students determine a word fails, give the correct word and direct them to either reread the sentence or continue the reading and move on. An instructional environment where students are not afraid to make mistakes and where opportunities are provided for self-correction is essential for developing monitoring and fix-up strategies.

AFTER READING: STRATEGIES FOR RECONSTRUCTING AND EXTENDING MEANING

What students do after reading can be just as important as what they do before and during the process. Effective reading does not end with a reader's arrival at the last word of the text. On the contrary, to obtain a sense of closure, strategic readers engage in the three complementary follow-up behaviors of retelling, summarizing and evaluation. Retelling is a more complete recounting of information organized around key text elements. Summarizing is the condensing of the major themes and important information in a selection. Evaluation is when readers purposefully integrate information in the text with their background knowledge and then react to it. Together these strategies enable readers to personalize the meaning of a selection.

Retelling What Was Read

Retelling text enhances the oral language development of young readers by encouraging them to detect the elements of fiction and non-fiction. (Cambourne, 1988; Koskinen., et al 1988), Cambourne (1988) defines six types of retelling as follows:

1. **Oral-Oral:**	Youngsters listen and retell orally.
2. **Oral-Drawing**:	Youngsters listen and retell by drawing.
3. **Oral-Writing**:	Youngsters listen and retell in writing.
4. **Written-Oral**:	Youngsters read and retell orally.
5. **Written to Drawing**	Youngsters read and retell by drawing
6. **Written-Written**:	Youngsters read and retell in writing.

Table 3

- **Model retelling of text.**

Using the elements of fiction or non-fiction discussed in "During Reading," model retelling by creating story maps of a text or chapter that was read aloud.

- Use retelling to evaluate students' comprehension of texts.

Utilizing Cambourne's retelling options, evaluate students' retellings by completing the retelling graphic organizer and applying the evaluation scales rubric. Note the elements

of text readers might be having difficulty with (events, problem, etc.). These elements should be re-taught in a small group focus lesson. (See Appendix)

Summarizing What Was Read

On the surface, summarizing would appear to be an easily acquired strategy, but this is not true. It is a cognitively challenging response to text. Summarizing is closely related to and may be dependent on the strategy of paraphrasing, which is the rephrasing of the main idea of a paragraph or short passage. Summarization requires an understanding of what was read as well as the ability to put that understanding into one's own words. It also demands a certain amount of brevity. Readers must learn to reduce the text to its gist--condensing without omitting key ideas, maintaining the author's point of view, and sequencing the information in a logical way. The goal of summarization is to capture the essence of the text clearly and concisely.

- **Teach students the characteristics of a summary.**

Provide numerous examples of well-constructed oral and written summaries. Through discussion, have the class evaluate those summaries and attempt to draw conclusions about why they are good ones. Explain that a good summary:

- is brief,
- describes the main topic or theme of the selection,
- includes only the important information,
- omits minor or irrelevant details,
- organizes the information in a clear way, and
- restates the meaning in the reader's own words.

Illustrate these criteria for students by using the following procedures with several easy reading selections.

> Have the students read a story or informational article, and then display a teacher-created map of the selection. Discuss with the group how the map contains the essence of the material. (See Features of Text section of Handbook.)
>
> Demonstrate how the map of the most important information enables you to generate an oral or written summary.
>
> Have the students discuss how your summary exemplifies the characteristics of one that is well constructed.

Figure 17

- **Develop students' ability to summarize.**

As with the other strategies, teachers must explain and demonstrate the process used to create summaries and then engage students in these same processes. Begin working toward this goal by asking students to retell a narrative selection they have just read. Record the statements of remembered ideas on the board and discuss with them which ideas are more important than others. Show the group the teacher-created story map and compare the information in it to their retelling statements. Develop the understanding that a summary of a narrative focuses on the elements of the story grammar by using the suggestions already presented in this **Instructional Handbook**.

In general, when teachers provide direct summarization instruction, they should move from using short selections to longer ones and from having students produce oral summaries to producing written accounts. Also, it is recommended that writing be used as a major tool in teaching summarizing. Unlike oral retellings, writing activities give readers more time to reflect on and shape their summaries. At the same time, written summaries allow teachers to analyze content more carefully than oral retellings permit. Summarization instruction that involves writing avoids the limits of short-term memory and encourages readers to evaluate, change, reshape, and rethink with the original printed text available. Written summaries not only help students establish in their own minds what they think the text said, but written versions also tend to make the information more memorable.

Some specific techniques useful for developing summarizing abilities are described below.

- **Newspaper Headlines:** Remove the headlines from three or four newspaper articles of varying length. Direct the students to read each story and select the appropriate headline from a composite list. Vary this activity by having students write their own headlines and compare them to the originals.

- **Frames**: Use open-ended frames to guide students in creating their own summaries.

- **Probable Passages**: This technique uses narrative story frames with portions deleted to have students predict the major elements in the story. After reading the story, students are directed to use the story frame to create an accurate summary of the selection.

- **Summary Pairs:** Have students read a selection of their own choosing. Then, working in pairs, the students can orally summarize the information for their partners.
- **Group Summary Writing** (Moore et al., 1986): Read an interesting, informative article to the class, and then ask the students to state the important ideas in what they have heard. List the points that the students give in the form of notes on the board. Using these notes, guide the class in constructing a group summary statement. This technique is a natural predecessor to individually created summaries.
- **News Reporter**: Place students in the role of a newspaper or television reporter. Give them the task of writing brief summaries of articles or stories focusing on the questions who, what, when, where, why, and how. The summaries of the group can be compared and discussed.
- **REAP Technique** (Eanet and Manzo, 1976): The REAP technique helps students clarify and synthesize their thinking. Summarization is a part of this technique. The steps are:

    - Read: students read the selection,
    - Encode: students write a retelling of the selection,
    - Annotate: students condense the retelling into a summary, and
    - Ponder: students consider the importance of the ideas in the selection.

Practice in summarization can occur naturally after typical classroom events such as subject area reading assignments, demonstrations, laboratory observations, and field trips. Listening to stories or to a speaker, viewing a film or television program, and book sharing also provide summarizing opportunities. Refer to articles by Taylor (1982) and Pincus, Geller and Stover (1986) for additional suggestions on teaching summarizing.

Narrative Story Frame

This story takes place _____

_____

are characters in the story. The problem is _____

Important events are _____

_____

The problem is solved _____

Figure 18

Informational Story Frame

The author wrote this selection _____
_____

The major ideas are _____
_____

Supporting details are _____
_____

Important words are _____
_____

Figure 19

Evaluating What Was Read

A tendency of some readers, particularly younger ones, is to accept everything they read as being true, accurate and well written. They passively accept the information presented without evaluating it or reacting to it in any way. Actually, readers should adopt a critical stance toward text so that they can become more active participants in the reading process. Evaluating or making judgments is the ultimate step in interacting with text.

Evaluating printed material, however, is not a single holistic strategy that can be precisely defined and illustrated. It consists of several possible dimensions or skills that often overlap or be interrelated. Although there is no definitive list, among the commonly identified aspects of evaluating text are:

- determining author's purpose and viewpoint
- distinguishing fact from opinion
- distinguishing fantasy from reality
- determining validity
- detecting propaganda techniques
- judging literary quality
- making value judgments

Some of the items on this list have traditionally been taught as isolated critical reading skills, and many useful, effective procedures have been developed to teach them. The strategy of evaluating text, however, requires that the knowledge and use of these skills be integrated and applied in different ways as readers interact with different types of fully formed texts.

- **Teach students to evaluate text by asking questions.**

It is recommended that instruction directed at evaluating or making judgments about text be centered in questions that students can be taught to ask themselves as they reflect upon the

Meaning of a selection. These questions relate to more than one of the traditional skills and thus provide opportunities for student to naturally and strategically apply a broad range of critical reading abilities. Among the questions that could be used to focus the instruction are:

- What did the author write this text and was that purpose accomplished
- Do I believe what the author says? Why? Why not?
- Is this selection clear and adequate?
- Did I like this selection?
- Did the author do a good job in writing this selection? Why? Why not
- How did I react to this selection

Teachers can readily ask and encourage the use of these and similar questions. Unfortunately the questions' responses may only be superficially given by many students. A dialogue such as the following does little to develop a student's ability to evaluate text.

Teacher: "Did you like the story?"
Student: "Yes."

Teacher: "Why did you like it?"
Student: "Because it was good."

Evaluation questions are meant to do more than elicit judgements of good or bad, right or wrong; they should stimulate students to give very personal, thoughtful, and perhaps divergent answers. Instruction in evaluating text should be designed to:

- Provide students with the opportunity to make evaluative responses
- Encourage a diversity of responses among students
- Develop student's ability to justify their response

The available space in the Instructional Handbook does not permit an extended description of the critical reading skills and the their relationships to the suggested evaluation questions. Rather, a general teaching procedure is briefly outlined and explained by using examples that focus on one representative question, "Did I like this selection?"

1. Explain why the evaluation question is important and how it relates to the student's critical reading skills

   Ask students to list their three favorite foods, television shows, singers, etc. and discuss tier responses in order to demonstrate that not everyone reacts to or feels the same about such things . A brief interest inventory could also be used to stimulate discussion of differences in persona preferences

Have students think about the last few selections they have read in class and have them identify the one they liked the most and the least. Again, discuss the varied responses to emphasize the importance of personal differences.

Have students identify their favorite story or book of those they recently completed, and have them explain, in turn, what they liked about it. Use probing questions to obtain answers that are as specific as possible. When appropriate, relate these personal preference statements to critical reading skills. for example, a student might state, "The writer made me feel like I was part of the story -- like it was happening to me." Explain that this response resulted form the author's using a first person point of view.

2. Establish criteria for responding to the evaluation question.
   Evaluative judgments are not facts because they are determined in part by a person's values and experiences. Although teachers should encourage creative, divergent and critical thinking, they need to teach students to base their judgements on (1) ideas in their prior knowledge and (2) evidence presented in the text. In this way students account fore and substantiate their evaluations of written materials using convergent thinking as well.

   Identify several previously read stories that students have indicated they enjoyed. Reread them to the group and discuss what was specifically appealing about these stories. Use the student's responses to create a set of criteria that can be referred to and expanded as they evaluate future selections. Establish criteria for both narrative and informational text.

3. Model diverse responses to the evaluation questions using class-created criteria
   After the group has read a selection, verbaliz4 different responses that readers have depending upon whether they liked the passage. For example, "I really liked this article because it was about my favorite sport -- baseball. I think the author accurately described how...." Follow this with, "This article talks about many things I'm not interested in so I really didn't like it. I don't think that enough explanation...."

   The modeling of personal reaction is an effective tool fore demonstrating that readers use a combination of prior knowledge and textual information in making critical judgements. Also, in this way, teachers can emphasize that there are no "right" answers to evaluation questions and that all answers are acceptable as they relate to judgment criteria.

4. Provide opportunities foe students to respond to the evaluation question by applying this criterion in different rewarding situations.
   Regularly ask students to state whether they liked a selection or not and have them justify their responses by referring to the evaluation criteria . Their experience could also be the focus of post-reading writing activities.

Duplicate the criteria on a checklist for the students to use as they independently read a self-selected book or article. Also encourage the students to use the criteria as they think about and revise their own writing projects.

Additional information and teaching suggestions related to evaluating text can be found in Irwin and Baker (1989), and Miller and McKenna (1989).

- Teach students to use collaborative techniques to generate questions.

Question Matrix (Q-Matrix)

A Question Matrix is a series of question stems that helps students create their own inquiries. Invite students to complete a Q-Matrix about a text they have read. The Q-Matrix can help generate questions for reading response logs, tests, or quizzes.

- Teach students to use a framework or response heuristic to evaluate text.

A response heuristic is a framework for use in reading response logs.

Model the Response Heuristic with a book being read aloud to the class. Following a period of modeling, encourage students to use the heuristic on a daily basis as a framework for their log entries. Consider keeping a "teacher log" constructed around a response heuristic as an on-going model for students.

Integrating After Reading Strategies

Because all of the various reading strategies overlap and are interrelated in some way, they can be discussed and practiced in conjunction with each other. The strategies need not be dealt with in isolation. In fact, after the initial stage of teaching about a strategy is completed, it may be best to discuss how it works with other strategies. One useful instructional technique for demonstrating how reading strategies can be integrated to construct meaning is Reciprocal Teaching. Its format combines the strategies of self questioning, summarizing, clarifying and predicting. This integrated approach for developing comprehension monitoring and fix-up strategies derives its name from the fact that the teacher and students take turns leading the discussion.

Students should learn to select and apply appropriate strategies on their own. If students use strategies only when instructed to do so, they probably will not transfer them to other kinds of reading. They need to develop independent strategies to correspond with different types of reading materials.

Teachers can address these needs in incidental ways whenever a reading discussion is being conducted. In addition to normal content-centered questions, teachers should, as the opportunities arise, ask questions that focus students' attention on the reading process. They should have students consider what they are doing while they are reading. Some process questions related to the previously discussed strategies are listed below.

- When you read the title, what questions did it create in your mind?
- What did you know that led you to predict this would happen?
- Are there any words that do not make sense or are confusing to you?
- What part made this hard for you to understand?
- What could you do to help you figure out what this means?
- What did you do to figure out the meaning of this confusing part?
- How did you figure out what the author's purpose was?
- What words in this passage painted a picture in your mind?
- How did you know what the main idea was?
- Did the author do a good job in writing this selection?

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

Anticipation Guide (Head & Readence,1986)

An Anticipation Guide (AG) activates prior knowledge, and can be especially useful for focusing on inaccuracies and misconceptions in the minds of some students. This pre reading technique establishes the acceptance, rejection, or modification of each reader's prior knowledge as the purpose for reading. An AG is best used with topics about which the students are likely to have differing opinions and attitudes. Steps for constructing an Anticipation Guide are:

1. Identify the major ideas to be included in the section and determine which will challenge or support students' beliefs.
2. Create statements (approximately 5) which students can react to based on their beliefs or opinions. Statements containing unknown information or non-controversial common knowledge will not be very useful.
3. Present the statements to the students and have them react positively or negatively to each statement.
4. Discuss the responses to each statement in the AG and have students explain why they responded as they did.

5. When all viewpoints have been discussed, have the students read the text and direct them to look for statements which support, contradict, or modify their opinions.
6. After reading, focus the class discussions on questions such as the following:

    - What statements support your opinions?
    - What statements contradict your opinions?
    - Why do you still agree or disagree with the writer?
    - What would help you change your mind?

7. An appropriate post-reading activity is to have the students respond again to the AG statements and then discuss how and why their responses differed from the ones made before reading. Sample statements from an AG are:

    - People are the only living things harmed by pollution.
    - The only causes of air pollution are found in big cities.
    - Pollution caused the death of the dinosaurs.
    - It would be impossible to get rid of air pollution, so there is no reason to try.

Expectation Scheme (Ribovich, 1977)

An Expectation Scheme is a structured group activity that is especially useful with informational text. It provides students with a purpose for reading, activates their prior knowledge, and engages them in making predictions. Steps for developing an Expectation Scheme are:

1. Have the students skim or pre-read a chapter or section of the text.
2. Each student then generates as many statements as possible about the information he or she expects to find in the selection.
3. Each statement is written on a separate card or strip of paper.
4. The students arrange the statements on the chalk or bulletin board in some type of hierarchical fashion. Class discussion should focus on why each statement was generated and why it was placed in a particular position in the hierarchy.
5. After the material is read, discussion should center on how the information closely coincides with the Expectation Scheme.

Graphic Organizer (Barron & Earle, 1973)

The Graphic Organizer or Structured Overview, as it is sometimes called, is a schematic diagram the major concepts in a portion of text. It is a visual representation of how those concepts and key vocabulary terms are related to each other. Graphic Organizers can be used for at least several different instructional purposes.

They can assist teachers in planning for instruction by helping them identify the patterns of organization of ideas and the concepts most important for understanding a selection. A graphic organizer can be useful for introducing the important vocabulary in a selection to be read. It shows students how the terms are interrelated. Teachers can use a Graphic Organizer to activate and tap student's background knowledge. Presented to the students before they read a selection, the Organizer can be a focal point of a lecture or discussion of the information they will be reading. Also, it can be a helpful refence for students to use in clarifying confusing points as they zare reading. Once students are familiar with the nature of the Graphic Organizers, they can create their own as a duroing-reading or post-reading activity.

Steps in the creation of Graphic Organizers are:

1. Analyze the concepts and vocabulary in the text
2. Arrange the words in a diagram that depicts the interrelationships between the concepts.
3. Add to the diagram the words or concepts that are already understood by the students in order to depict relationships between what they know and the information in the text.

The following is a sample of a Graphic organizer developed by a teacher to use with a chapter from a social studies textbook on the South Central States.

The United States

New England States	Middle Atlantic States	Southern States
	South Central States Arkansas Louisiana Oklahoma Texas	

Geography		Agriculture
Land	Rivers	Cotton
Plains	Mississippi	Sugarcane
Mountains	Rio Grande	Rice
Delta	Red	

Figure 20

Guided Writing Procedure (Smith & Bean, 1980)

A modified version of the Guided Writing Procedure is useful for activating and synthesizing students' prior knowledge. Also, it can provide a variety of purposes to guide the reading of a selection. The steps for the Guided Writing Procedure are:

1. Identify the key concept in the selection to be read. Present it to the students and have them brainstorm their associations. Example: "Pollution"

2. Record the different responses on the board.

Smoke	ponds	cars
Noise	garbage	factories
Oceans	death	diseases

3. Through a class discussion, group the responses into categories and label the categories.

4. Use the categories to create an outline of information.

I. Sources
   A. Cars
   B. Factories

II. Products
   A. Smoke
   B. Noise
   C. Garbage

III. Water Pollution
   A. Ponds
   B. Oceans

IV. Results
   A. Diseases
   B. Death

5. Have each student write a passage, perhaps one or two paragraphs in length, using the information in the outline. Asking a few students to read their passages aloud will demonstrate that even though they have all used the same outline, each person's writing is unique.

6. Have students read the selection to (a) determine the congruence between the outline and text; (b) identify points of agreement and disagreement between their passages and the text; and (c) identify additional information in the text that could be used to enhance or clarify their passages.

7. After reading, discuss the selection in terms of these purposes.

K-W-L (Ogle, 1986)

The K-W-L procedure involves students in activating prior knowledge, asking questions to set purposes for reading, and recording information that answer those questions. The steps are:

1. Activate background knowledge by having students brainstorm what they know about the topic to be considered, and then write all associations on the chalkboard.

2. Provide students with a graphic organizer that is divided and labeled like the following example.

K	W	L
What We Know	**What We Want To Learn**	**What We Learned**

Figure 21

3. Through class discussion have students categorize their associations. This information is then used to complete the "Know" portion of the organizer.

4. Using the information discussed, have students generate questions they want answered about the topic. Have them write these questions in the "Want to Know" space. Additional questions can be added as they read the selection.

5. To add the PLUS component, encourage students to categorize the information that the student group expects to use.

6. As students read, they write information in the "Learned" portion of the organizer.

7. After reading, students discuss what answers they did and did not find to their questions.

8. Carr and Ogle (1987) also recommend that the information on the organizer can be the basis for mapping and summarization activities.

Listen-Read-Discuss (Manzo & Cassale, 1985)

The Listen-Read-Discuss procedure provides students with background knowledge prior to the reading of a selection, promotes interaction between readers and the text by allowing the teacher to establish several possible purposes for reading, and encourages open-ended, post-reading discussions. The steps are:

1. Prior to reading, the teacher presents the main concepts in the reading material through a brief lecture. This should take up to no more than the first half of the allotted class time.

2. The class then reads the selection, and the teacher can suggest a purpose for reading such as:

- compare the information in the lecture with that in the text;
- identify the important supporting details omitted from the lecture;
- identify the most confusing portions of the text and determine how best to deal with them; and
- respond in some critical or creative way appropriate to the information in the text.

3. Following reading, the class discussion can focus on the purpose statement provided for the students as well as on the following two questions (1) What did you understand the best (or least) from what you heard and read? and (2) What thoughts or questions did this selection stimulate in your mind?

Pre-Reading a Chapter

Pre-reading a chapter enables a student (a) to see the importance of a chapter in terms of the whole textbook, (b) to set a purpose for reading and (c) to connect new information to what is already known. This procedure can be done as a whole class activity, or students can be directed to do it with a partner or individually once they have been taught the following steps:

1. Examine the Table of Contents to determine how the chapter fits into the overall organization of the text.

2. Identify the outline of information in the chapter by reading the introductory material and by examining the sub-titles and side-headings.

3. Identify any terms or phrases in the sub-titles or side-headings that are unfamiliar.

4. Identify those terms or phrases in the sub-titles or side-headings which are familiar and speculate about the information that will be given on them.

Pre-Reading Plan (Langer, 1981)

The Pre-Reading Plan (PreP) provides a framework for activating and extending prior knowledge. The steps are:

1. Identify the central concept in the selection and introduce it to the students by saying "What comes to your mind when you hear the word (or phrase)?" (Example: "Elephant")
2. Individually, have students write all of their associations, and then on the chalkboard make a composite list of all of the different responses. ("Zoo, "big," "ivory tusk")

3. Have students reflect on why each association was made by asking, "What made you think of ?" ("I saw one when I went to the zoo.") As students explain what they know, a shared group background knowledge is developed.

4. Conclude the activity by saying, "As a result of our discussion, can you think of any other information that you know about this topic?" ("They also live in jungles and at the circus.") This final step provides the opportunity for new insights to be developed based on the class discussion.

Probable Passages (Wood, 1984)

Probable Passages is a pre-reading technique that integrates prediction, summarization, vocabulary instruction and story frames. The steps are:

1. Select important terms and concepts from a story to be read.

2. Have the students categorize them according to the story elements of setting, characters, problems, events and resolution. Then have each student write a probable story using the words in each category and a frame similar to the following:

The story takes place _____.
_____ is a character who _____
A problem occurs when _____
After that _____.
The problem is solved when _____.
The story ends when _____

Figure 22

3. Have the students read the story and compare it to the version they predicted. Then have the students modify their predicted story to make it a summary paragraph.

Reciprocal Questioning (ReQuest) (Manzo, 1969)

Reciprocal Questioning, or ReQuest as it is often called, helps students develop the ability to ask questions about the material they are reading. Teacher modeling of this questioning strategy is an integral part of the procedure. The steps are:

1. The teacher and the students silently read the initial portion of a selection or story. This may be the first sentence or two; or the first few paragraphs depending upon the material and the age of the students.

2. When the reading is completed, the students are invited to ask the teacher any questions they have that relate to the information in the passage just read. The teacher responds with answers that are as clear and complete as possible.

3. When the students have no more questions, the teacher then asks them a few questions about the same passage. It is recommended that teachers ask questions that require higher level thinking and which focus on the major ideas in the selection. Often when the procedure is first being introduced to students, they ask explicit questions about insignificant details. The modeling of more thought provoking questions by the teacher influences the students to frame more challenging questions about the most important ideas presented.

4. The procedure described in steps 1, 2 and 3 is then repeated with the next segment of the selection.

5. Depending upon the length and topic of the material, it is recommended that after three or four segments are read and discussed using the ReQuest format, the students predict how the selection will end and complete the reading assignment independently.

Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984)

Reciprocal Teaching is an on-going dialogue between teachers and their students which helps them jointly construct the meaning of text. It involves nurturing the development of four related comprehension monitoring and fix-up strategies listed below:

- Summarizing - identifying and paraphrasing the major ideas in the text
- Self-questioning - generating questions about the text
- Clarifying - discerning when there has been a comprehension breakdown and taking the necessary action to restore meaning
- Predicting - hypothesizing about the structure and content of upcoming text segments

The unique feature of Reciprocal Teaching is that the teacher and students take turns leading a discussion that focuses on application of the four reading strategies. Students get a firsthand feel for the value of making predictions, self-questioning, clarifying and summarizing when attempting to understand a text and evaluate an author's message.

During the lesson, the teacher models the use of each strategy so students witness directly how they can be applied. Students are expected to assume the teacher's role after observing this modeling. Throughout the lesson, the teacher monitors student performance and provides feedback to students about the use of the four reading strategies. Although students are encouraged to take the lead, the teacher remains primarily responsible for initiating and sustaining the dialogue. The steps are:

1. The teacher should determine students' existing ability to apply the strategies as well as what parts of the text should be used to develop the strategies.

2. The teacher should generate a list of questions about the text, consider possible predictions about each text segment, and create possible summaries for discussion.

3. At the outset of the lesson, the group reviews the strategies they are learning, why the strategies are important, and when they should be used.

4. Students are initially encouraged to predict what they will learn by using the title and their background knowledge of the topic.

5. The teacher appoints a leader for the first text segment, and the text is read aloud or silently depending on the decoding skills of the students.

6. The leader then asks a question and the others respond.

7. Next, the leader gives a summary of the text segment and invites reactions from the group.

8. Any clarifications that were made or still need attention are addressed.

9. The group discusses their predictions for the next text segment and a new leader is identified.

10. The process continues for each text segment.

Semantic Mapping

Semantic Mapping can be used as both a pre- and post-reading activity to accomplish several purposes. It can be employed to activate and create background knowledge, to help students see relationships among vocabulary terms, to connect new information to prior knowledge, and to assist students in organizing information. For a thorough description of its possible uses, see Heimlich and Pittelman (1986). The steps are:

1. Identify a key term or concept in what will be read. Direct the students to tell or write down all words and phrases that they think of when you tell them the key term or concept.

2. List all responses on the board, and conduct a discussion about why each association was made. Have the students group the responses into categories and label these categories. Discuss why the groupings and labels were chosen, and display the results in a manner similar to the examples below.

Political Parties	**Political Symbols**
Republican	Donkey
Democrat	Elephant
Socialist	
ELECTION	
	Terms Heard
Political Offices	**During Elections**
President	Landslide
Senator	Incumbent
Mayor	Majority

Figure 23

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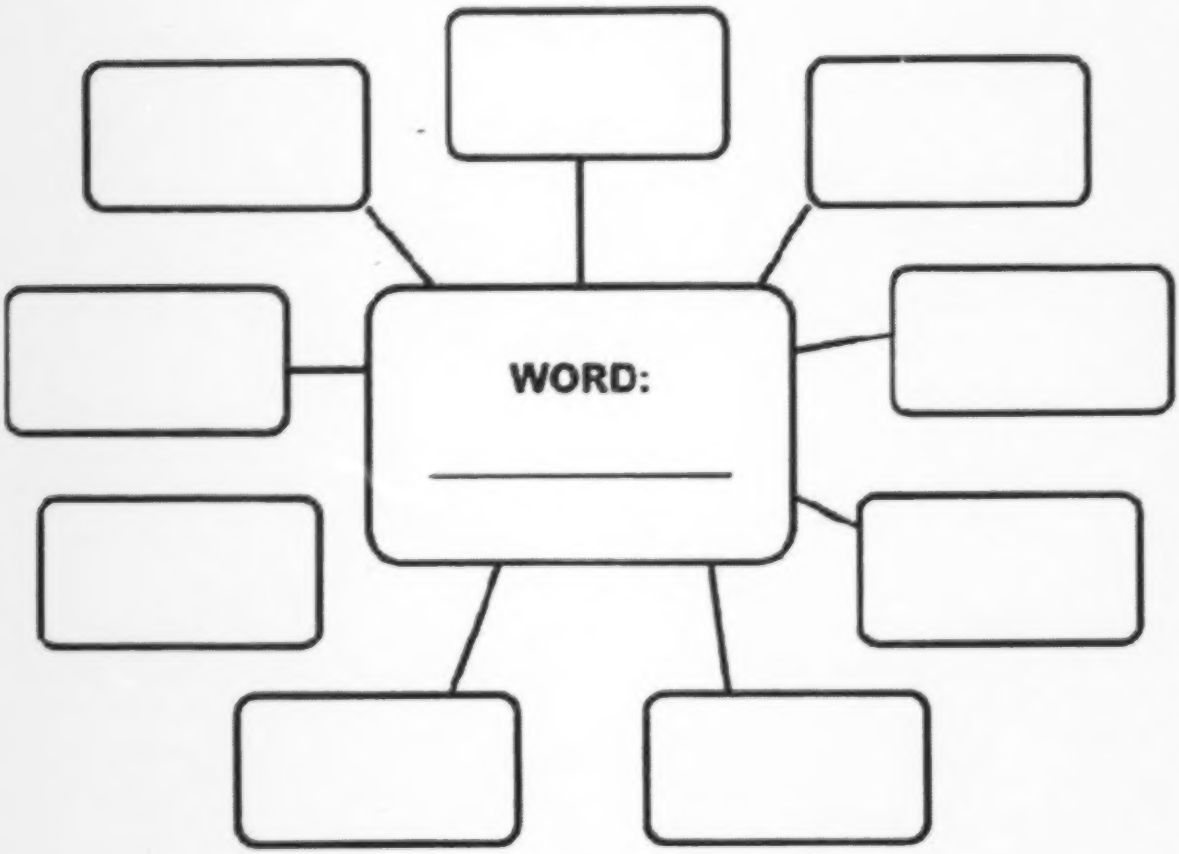
Appendix A

The Word Web

NAME: _____



APPENDIX B

RETELLING

Oral - Oral

Students listen to a story and retell orally.

Oral - Drawing

Students and retell by drawing.

Oral - Writing

Students listen and retell in writing.

Written - Oral

Students read a story and retell orally.

Written - Drawing

Students read and retell by drawing.

Written - Written

Students read and retell in writing.

Appendix C

K - W - L Strategy Sheet

What We Know	What We Want To Find Out	What We Learned/ Still Need To Learn
1.		

PLUS:

2. Categories of Information We Expect to Use

A.

B.

C.

D.

E.

F.

APPENDIX D

Checklist for Assessing K W L Performance

Student _____ Date _____ Grade _____

		Teacher Verified
1. I brainstormed for all I might know about the topic before reading and made a list in the K Column.	___	☐
2. I listed a number of questions I had about the topic in the W column.	___	☐
3. As I read, I kept double-entry notes, a. jotting down things I was learning. b. jotting down, in the L column, new questions that came to mind.	___	☐
4. I reflected on my _ column, a. putting a check beside everything that I confirmed as I read. b. putting a line through anything I found I was in error about. c. putting a ? beside anything that was not dealt with in the text.	___	☐
5. After reading, I reflected on my W column, putting a check beside any questions that were answered.	___	☐
6. I starred any questions in all three columns that I will do further reading to answer.	___	☐

This checklist is designed to be used independently by the student as a monitoring device after the K-W-L procedure has been modeled by the teacher. After the student initially uses the checklist as a guide, the student and teacher should confer, talking through the steps with the teacher verifying each response as appropriate. The checklist would ideally be used only once for a given text, but can be repeated as student dictates. It can be translated to a scoring rubric when the student knows the strategy well.

Suggested Rubric:

1. Consistently; 2. Usually; 3. Occasionally; 4. Not Yet

Comprehension by Judy Gehman

APPENDIX E

FICTION: Retelling Guide

Student _____ Date _____ Grade _____

CHARACTERS: _____

SETTING: _____

EVENTS: _____

SOLUTION/RESOLUTION: _____

APPENDIX F

Q-MATRIX

1. After reading, student 1 selects a stem and completes the question.

2. Student 2 writes or paraphrases the question.

3. Student 3 answers the question.

4. Student 4 writes or paraphrases the answer.
   If the answer is correct, student 4 offers praise.

   If the answer is incorrect, student 4 should begin a discussion to make correction.

5. The rounds are repeated until each student has at least two opportunities to assume each of the four roles.

Q –Matrix

1. What Is?	2. Where/ When Is	3. Which Is?	4. Who Is?	5. Why Is?	6. How Is?
7. What Did?	8. Where/ When Did?	9. Which Did?	10. Who Did?	11. Why Did?	12. How Did?
13. What Can?	14. Where/ When Can?	15. Which Can?	16. Who Can?	17. Why Can?	18. How Can?
19. What Would?	20. Where/ When Would?	21. Which Would?	22. Who Would?	23. Why Would?	24. How Would?
25. What Will?	26. Where/ When Will?	27. Which Will?	28. Who Will?	29. Why Will?	30. How Will?
31. What Might?	32. Where/ When Might?	33. Which Might?	34. Who Might?	35. Why Might?	36. How Might?

Spencer Kagur

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE RUBRIC/SCORING GUIDE: RETELLING

LEVEL 4: Advanced
- **Demonstrates in-depth understanding**
- **Details are included**
- **Strong connection to information is offered**

LEVEL 3: Proficient
- **Demonstrates a literal understanding.**
- **Information and is correct.**
- **Sequence is correct.**

LEVEL 2: Partially Proficient
- **Demonstrates some understanding.**
- **Information is relevant but vague.**
- **Some sequential confusion.**

LEVEL 1: Novice
- **Demonstrates an attempt of understanding.**
- **Information is fragmented, with incomplete responses.**
- **Sequence disjointed and limited.**

LEVEL 0: No evidence

Adapted from PA Reading Rubric
Mary Keepers, Reading
PDE '97

APPENDIX H

Non Fiction Retelling Guide

Name: _____ Date_____

Text Structure _____ Title of Text Selection_____

Was a graphic organizer completed? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Did the teacher and student review the material together? ☐ Yes ☐ No

During this retelling, was the student looking at the graphic organizer? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Prompts (check for each prompt) _____ Specific Prompts (checks for each)_____

Main Idea:

Points

Details:

Points

Vocabulary:

Points

Author's Purpose:

Points

Graphic Interpretation:

Points

Overall Points:

Rubric by: Mary Klinger

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Appendix I

I - SEARCH
Guiding Questions

TRADEBOOKS JOURNALS TEXTBOOKS ENCYCLO OTHERS	1. Why did Columbus sail?	2. What did he find?	3. What kind of things did he do when he got there?	4. How was Columbus regardec by others?	5. Other interesting facts?	6. New Questons
	SUMMARY:					

J.C. Harste and C.L. Burke, 1977

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